The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 3, 1898.

The Week.

Gen. Sherman dropped in upon a gathering of clergymen in Washington, ten or twelve years ago, and was rallied a little on venturing among so many heralds of peace. He rejoined, in his swift, incisive way, "You gentlemen in black coats are the men who make war. We of the army and navy simply end the wars which you bring on." It cannot be said, however, that the clergy as a whole are now adding anything to the war fury, except as their words are distorted by lying newspapers. Nearly all the references from the pulpit to the *Maine* disaster are moderate and calming in tone. The President himself listened to a peace sermon in Washington on Sunday. Certainly if ever the ministry feels itself called upon to withstand the active powers of darkness, the need of opposing and exposing the diabolical newspapers which are trying to lie the country into war must be obvious. The trouble is that the lying is so devilish that it perverts even words of truth and soberness that any sane and honest man may speak. It seems impossible to give the lie to these venal and unspeakable sheets in so explicit a form that they will not twist it into an explicit endorsement. Luckily, the lying has been done on such a monstrous scale that nothing these papers say is now credited by any rational man without independent confirmation. A long course of lies, which, like the father that begat them, are gross as a mountain, open, palpable, is at last working out the natural result of breeding universal distrust of anything seen in print. But the liars go jauntily on their way to the lake of fire prepared for them, and

> "——blind and naked Ignorance
> Delivers brawling judgments, unashamed,
> On all things all day long."

Nothing could be more curious than the contrast between the wild aspect of the first pages of our penny dreadfuls and the calm demeanor of the persons who are seen reading them. If half of what the "scare" headlines reveal were true, the first impulse of the reader would be to remove his family to a place of safety, dispose of his property as best he could, and make arrangements to leave the country. A few years ago the mere sight of a newspaper got up in this extraordinary style, with headlines in bill-poster type reaching quite across the page, would have started a panic. People would have inferred that nothing less than a most dangerous condition of affairs could have led the editor to such unusual demonstrations of alarm. Now they are read with entire passivity, even although they declare war to be imminent, and indicate that a majority of the American people, including those of them who are in power, are either lunatics or maniacs. The new journalism has been steadily raising the tone of its yelling till it has reached the highest limit possible. The louder it shrieks, the less attention is paid to it. What would remain for it to do in case of real danger, or a real war, it is difficult to imagine. The resources of type have been about exhausted. Nothing in the way of larger letters can be used, unless only a single headline is to be given on the first page. Red ink has been resorted to as an additional element of attraction or terror, and if we had a war, the whole paper might be printed in red, white, and blue. In that case, real instead of imitation lunatics should be employed as editors and contributors.

The chief trouble between the United States and Spain at the present time is not the disaster to the *Maine* in Havana harbor. Nobody really thinks that the Spanish Government or its military or naval officers caused that disaster or intended that it should take place. If it was caused by a private person, we have no means of knowing whether he was an adherent of Spain or of the Cuban rebellion. He may be an insane person. He may have perished in the explosion. Leaving that disaster out of the reckoning, the preëxisting trouble remains; that consists of a mutual misunderstanding, and therein lies the danger. The two nations do not look at the same facts in the same light. The Spaniards think that we want to acquire the island of Cuba. It belongs to them. It was theirs centuries before we became a nation. They think that we want to take it from them for our own use and behoof, and that all our disclaimers of such a purpose are hypocritical and false. In point of fact, we do not want the island at all. One of the most powerful deterring influences which have held us aloof so far is a reluctance to become responsible for the future social and political condition of the island if it were wrested from Spain by us. Moreover, it angers us to be charged with a selfish motive in reference to Cuba. This is the way Spain misunderstands us.

We misunderstand Spain in a different way. We look upon her first as a monarchy. Our knowledge of the monarchical governments of Europe as they exist to-day is extremely vague, and of Spain the vaguest of all. To the great mass of Americans—to those who have not travelled abroad or who have not had the advantage of schooling in political science under modern masters—the Spain of to-day is the Spain of Cortez, of Pizarro, of Philip II., of the Armada, and of the Inquisition. More Americans have had their conceptions of Spain moulded by the writings of Prescott and Motley than by all other influences taken together. These writings are true of the time to which they relate, but not of the present time. They are true just as the speeches of Burke and Chatham were true of the Government of George III., but not of that of Victoria. Perhaps as many Americans fail to distinguish between the England of 1776 and that of our own time as between the Spain of Alva and that of Castelar. We can remember a time, during a former rebellion in Cuba, when Charles Sumner thought it necessary to make a speech against our interference, pointing out the fact that Castelar was then at the head of the Government of Spain and that the world contained no better republican than he. Castelar still lives, and his voice has been heard in remonstrance against the misconceptions that we have formed concerning Spain and Cuba.

It is to be remembered, by people who think at all about consequences, that the Cuban trouble would not end with the expulsion of the Spanish. We should then find ourselves in possession of an island desolated by war, and inhabited by a mongrel race unused to self-government, grossly ignorant and superstitious. Consequently, any one who is working out a plan of campaign, should work out at the same time a plan for the reorganization of civil society in the island by the United States. We are not saying this by way of joke or sarcasm. We mean seriously that the performance of some such task will be one of the inevitable consequences of victory; and if we are to dispose of the Spaniards as easily as we think we are, it is not a bit too soon to begin to think about it. If Cuba is to be a dependency of ours, how are we to govern it? What class of men are we to select for the purpose? Are we to allow popular suffrage to have any share in it? If we admit the island as one, two, or three States of the Union, what kind of addition will these States make to the Senate? What effect will this have in producing further annexations—Hawaii, other West Indian islands, Mexico, and the South American states? The doctrine that "all will come out right in the end," on which Americans have in the past relied so much, and with so much success, was, it must be remembered, based on the fact that our problems were dealt with by a ho-

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mogeneous population, possessing a common political training and traditions. As soon as we began to admit another race to a share in the work, things did not "come out right in the end." The admission of the negroes, for instance, to a share in our government, indispensable as it was as a guarantee against their oppression, has not come out right yet. Its very advocates at the North have actually abandoned the assumptions on which they supported it, as seen in their scheme for the annexation of Hawaii. They now say that men of an inferior race need not be consulted about their political destiny.

Prime Minister Sagasta's assertion that Spain cannot consent to refer the Cuban troubles to arbitration is only what was to have been expected. Some sanguine people have been hoping that if the worst came, and war seemed inevitable, England or Germany might interpose with good offices and ask that arbitration be resorted to instead of arms. But Sagasta declares that the Government of Spain will "reject every act tending to cast the slightest shadow upon the indisputable sovereignty of the nation, or to diminish its liberty of action in any territory over which the Spanish flag floats." We cannot blame Spain for this. She regards Cuba as a part of her inalienable territory just as truly as we consider Florida a part of ours, and will no more hear of discussing the question of giving up Cuba than we should of surrendering Florida. Moreover, Spain's attitude towards arbitration is only what we have taught her. We have ostentatiously declined to consider arbitration applicable in cases touching territory or honor. We had a treaty of arbitration pending with England, and then so mangled it out of shape with restrictions and qualifications, tending to make it ridiculous and to prove that we did not believe in arbitration at all, that the whole thing was finally thrown overboard as an offence in the nostrils. We had our boasted project of pan-American arbitration, but brushed it contemptuously aside when the Chilian flurry occurred. It does not lie in our mouths to find fault with any nation for being unwilling to arbitrate international difficulties. We have had the opportunity of giving arbitration new sanctions and dignity, and flung it away with a Jingo whoop. Now we cannot complain if that chicken, with many others that have gone out of our own Jingo hennery in the past eight years, is coming home to roost.

The Administration evidently has ceased to push the Hawaiian annexation scheme with the zeal which it manifested at the opening of the session. The President appears to have learned that it would be a very bad thing for the party if he should carry through what is really a personal project, not justified by the platform upon which he was elected, repugnant to prominent Republican Senators and prominent Republican leaders in the House, and condemned by public sentiment. The movement to secure an early adjournment of Congress helps the opposition to annexation, since if the Senate can be kept busy with other matters, the Hawaiian scheme can be held in the background until it is too late to pass even a joint resolution. Considerations of party advantage operate to the same end. The Republican managers in the House naturally shrink from having an Administration measure come up in that body which is earnestly opposed by Speaker Reed, Chairman Cannon of the appropriations committee, and many other Republicans who sympathize with Representative Johnson of Indiana in his earnest protest against it last week. The *Maine* incident has also served to injure the chances of annexation. Once men began to think of war as possibly near, they realized how much better prepared for war the nation is without Hawaii than with it. If there should be a conflict with Spain, we should want all our war vessels for use in it, and should be handicapped if we were compelled to keep some of them in Hawaiian waters for the defence of those islands.

The incident serves to emphasize a lesson which the developments of the last few weeks have been teaching—the value of discussion to a democracy. It is now three months since Congress met and the Senate took up the treaty for the annexation of Hawaii. The treaty was sent in by a President who had but recently been inaugurated and who made annexation an Administration measure. The vast power that a new executive possesses in the early part of his term, through the control of the patronage, combined with the natural inclination of partisans to sustain the head of their organization in a policy to which he had sought to commit it. Various motives of self-interest impelled hesitating members to yield to the insistence of the President. Nobody doubts that if the advocates of annexation could have forced a vote without discussion early in December, the treaty would have secured the requisite two-thirds vote, and the irrevocable step would have been taken. To-day the most sanguine among them admit that the treaty cannot be ratified, and the opponents of the scheme believe that they can defeat the attempt to reach the same end through the passage by both branches of a joint resolution. Three months of discussion have sufficed to show that public sentiment is overwhelmingly against the scheme, and the prospect for its defeat after deliberation is now as good as was the outlook for its success before such deliberation.

Congressional proceedings on Washington's Birthday usually are either suspended entirely, or are humdrum and perfunctory in their nature. But the session of the House last week was rendered notable by a striking speech from Mr. Johnson of Indiana, a Republican member, which was most appropriate to the anniversary. Mr. Johnson improved the opportunity which the rules permit to discuss questions of general public policy while an appropriation bill is up, to make an emphatic and impressive protest against the annexation of Hawaii. He opposed the scheme because the people of Hawaii, outside the small governing-class, are against annexation; because the population are ignorant, and it is absurd to take in a large body of such ignorance at the very time when we are legislating against the admission of individual immigrants who are ignorant; because our system of government is not adapted to a colonial policy; because annexation of Hawaii would establish a bad precedent, which we should be urged to follow at an early day, and the cry of to-day, "Give us Hawaii," would be to-morrow, "Give us Cuba," and the next day, "Give us Samoa"; and because "the internal reforms which our country demands present a field broad enough to enlist our best efforts. The purification of the ballot, the crushing of the rings and Trusts which plunder our people without stint, the restriction of immigration, the establishment of a fixed and stable standard of value, and the reform of our banking laws, afford work enough for us to do." Mr. Johnson closed with an earnest appeal that, if the Senate shall send to the House a joint resolution for annexation, the Representatives may "have the moral courage to say 'No' to a policy which will lead, God alone knows where." Significant as was such a protest by a leading Republican Congressman against a policy advocated by a Republican President, its plauditory reception by the body to which it was addressed was still more significant.

South Carolina feels keenly the shame of the frightful crime by which the colored postmaster at Lake City was killed, and members of his family killed or wounded, by a mob of whites who had set their home on fire in the middle of the night. Nothing could be asked for more appropriate to the occasion than the editorial expressions of the Columbia *State*, and the Charleston *News and Courier* has been equally outspoken in condemnation of the atrocity. The murder of the postmaster is the sixth lynching that has occurred in South Carolina since the beginning of the year, and the Charleston editor holds the State authorities indirectly responsible for the latest crime because "they have made practically no effort whatever to stay the hand of violence." He goes still fur-

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ther, and welcomes the opportunity now presented for the federal Government to interpose, as "the State authorities have demonstrated their inability to deal with such crimes against the law." Time was when scarcely the preoccupation of impending war could have kept the Republicans in Congress from vociferating for such interposition, even in a case not distinctly federal, like this.

Croker's declaration in favor of the constitutional amendment providing for biennial sessions of the Legislature insures its passage by the Assembly as already by the Senate. The Democratic members from the interior of the State have been favorably disposed towards it from the start, and, with Tammany supporting it, there will be hardly anybody outside of the Albany representatives in opposition. Much speculation is indulged in as to the cause of this change of base, the Tammany members having only last week recorded themselves against advancing the measure. The really significant feature of the incident is the light which it throws upon the dummy character of the modern legislator under the boss system. His only business is to obey orders, and this he must do even when it requires him to oppose one week the very thing that he argued in favor of the week before. It is no wonder that men of character and ability are not found in the Legislature under such a system.

We have now four bosses, two in each party, who are seeking openly to direct the Legislature at Albany. Platt and Black are doing this work for the Republicans, and Hill and Croker for the Democrats. All four take the common ground that the members of the Legislature have no individual will or desire in the matter; that they are sent to Albany, not to deliberate upon matters of public interest and legislate to the best of their ability for the good of the State, but to obey "orders" from the bosses. Platt comes on from Washington on Sundays and gives his orders in person to the leaders of the Republican majority in the two houses. Black summons the Republican members to his office and tells them what he wants them to do with measures for reforming primaries and securing biennial sessions of the Legislature. Croker writes a formal letter to Senator Cantor, which the latter gives to the press, telling him what he wishes the Democrats in the two houses to do. It matters not a particle that the course which Croker favors is exactly opposite to that which the Democrats have been pursuing. Cantor promptly calls a caucus, and it is taken for granted that the Democrats will turn around. The only doubt which exists about it lies in the fact that Hill, who issues his views in the form of bulletins through the press, is opposed to Croker on some points, and may take some of the rural Democratic members with him.

The receipts, bar and other, at Mr. Croker's club are likely to be small for some time to come, owing to the "squeezing" which many of the members have suffered in Wall Street during the last few days. This misfortune, coming on top of failure to get the civil-service regulations broken down in order to turn the minor places in the municipal departments over to Tammany, is likely to precipitate a crisis in the Club's finances. The decision not to move into a new and larger club-house was made just in the nick of time. Mr. Croker reached it, it is said, because the income of the Club was not proving to be so great as had been anticipated. The members, as a body, having parted with the greater part of their ready money in paying their initiation fees and buying their dress suits, had little money to spend in drinks and dinners and suppers. If they could all have got "places," as they hoped to do, this would not have been the case, but the damnable civil-service law has proved to be an insurmountable obstacle, for a time at least, to such possession. Now, as if this were not hard luck enough, comes the war-scare, with the slump in Wall Street sweeping away all the profits that had been made through the "tip" on rapid transit, and carrying with them a lot of money in "margins" which the rank and file of Tammany had put up on what they supposed was a "sure thing" in elevated railway and Metropolitan stock. What is the good of a club membership and a club suit if you have no money in your pocket, and the credit system cannot be worked? If you pawn your suit, you cannot go to the Club without danger of giving offence to Mr. Croker. If you retain the suit and go to the Club, filled largely with members, like yourself, impecunious, what enjoyment can you look for? What is the inevitable consequence? Why, the Club is deserted, and members are forced back into the saloons where they can "take something" on the proceeds of their sold or pawned club suits.

The new Irish local-government bill seems to give general satisfaction to all parties. It is a much greater triumph for the popular party than the English County Councils were. In England, it is true, the county government was taken away from the gentry, but the gentry were men of the same race and religion as the people, and on excellent terms with them. In Ireland the counties have been governed by the grand juries, made up almost exclusively of Protestant landlords chosen by the sheriffs, and as hostile to the Catholic masses as they could well be. As far as honesty in the spending of county money went, it has been tolerably good government for the last sixty years, but one utterly indifferent to popular opinion. What the English Tory ministry feared, as Mr. Balfour's bill of five years ago showed, was that, if the voters got hold of the machinery of county governments, they would punish the landlords by unfair or excessive taxation. Accordingly, in that first attempt at Irish local government, the new County Councils were surrounded by restrictions and had less real power than our Municipal Assembly. It was accordingly withdrawn amid general laughter. The Irish members would have none of it. The difficulty has been got over in this bill, in the Tory way, by paying half the landlords' taxation by grant from the imperial treasury. With this the landlords are, of course, much pleased, and the Radicals hardly less so, because it brings English money into the country. Consequently, all parties have hailed it with approval. Behind all this, however, lies a still more potent reason for satisfaction. Mr. Balfour has consulted the Irish in drawing the bill. This used to be considered by Englishmen as "foul scorn," of which nobody but Gladstone could be guilty. In O'Connell's day a consultation with him by the Whigs was treated by the *Times* as little short of a compact with criminals. Time and experience have brought wisdom. The Conservatives have begun to treat Irishmen as having something to say about the management of their own affairs. May be it will be the dawning of a better era. May be some of the Tammany men will go over, and show the natives how to astonish the world by corruption and rascality.

The French Government has evidently embarked on a policy of repression as rigid and as intolerable to free men as the prosecutions set on foot by the German Emperor. He considers slighting reference to his sacred person treasonable; in France it is the army which it is *lèse-majesté* to breathe a word against. Crime for crime, we think the German is less fantastic, less fraught with danger, than the French. There may be excuse for holding that the Head of the State so stands for law and order and national dignity that railing accusations against him cannot be tolerated; but the army is another affair. In the Zola case the army has been represented by officers who, whatever their military virtues, have shown themselves most inimical to the paramount civil virtues—respect for truth and for law and a desire to do justice. When a wretched roué and intriguer like Major Esterhazy can insult the court and go out into the street to be greeted with frantic cheers of "Vive l'armée!" we get an idea of the baseness and very unworshipful nature of the majesty before which France appears willing to prostrate herself.

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EXCITABILITY.

If we examine closely the cause of the success of our yellow journals in the lying business, we shall find it almost invariably in the excitability of a portion of our population. It is to minister to this excitability, to increase it, play on it, and get money out of it, that most of their lies are told and their pictures published. In fact, it may be said that they live by it. They could not make money in this way out of a calm, phlegmatic public. It would be like asking a grandfather or old uncle to have a game of marbles or figure at a masked ball. The reasons why so many of us are excitable, and therefore fall a ready prey to the trade liar, are not far to seek. We come in the main of a very serious race, and have grown up from generation to generation under a very solemn view of life and death. We were probably, down to the close of the last century, as grave, as hard to rouse into overwhelming emotion, as either the English or Dutch from whom we sprang. But the astonishing prosperity of the country after the close of the Revolutionary war threw the whole community off its balance, and begot the "peculiar people" theory, which made the experience of mankind seem of little value to us, and threw the homely Poor Richard wisdom of the olden time completely into the shade. It seemed as if our nation had been brought into the world in order to show the worthlessness of precedents and the emptiness of ancient saws. Hope began to fill the air as it had never before done in human history. Life seemed to lose half its anxieties, through the general confidence that every year would bring its own prosperity, that comfort was at last to be had without too much frugality, competence without too much toil. Recovery from disaster became so easy that the old-world fear of bankruptcy and other misfortune seemed silly. Population and wealth increased in a degree unknown to financiers and statesmen. Simple ability began to have rewards poured in on it as never before. And this exhilaration was intensified by the quality of the atmosphere. American air and sunshine seemed to have been devised for a new race of men, who knew nothing of gloom either of the soul or of the weather.

Naturally enough, man began on this continent to adapt his manners to his surroundings. Calm, caution, hesitation are the characteristics of people who doubt, who have had misfortunes, who grow less well off as they grow older. They did not become the denizens of the New World. It began to seem "un-American" to be cast down, to be disheartened by any mischance, or to refuse to be easily elated. In fact, easy elation, quick action, indisposition to deliberation, became rapidly cherished national characteristics. The American boy was brought up to be easily excited, but always in the direction of joy and hopefulness. He was not to lament or wail over anything. Fires, battles, insolvency, were always to touch new springs of strength and vigor. His eagle was always to scream and flap its wings on the smallest provocation. He was to remain always young. He was to be afraid of nobody and nothing. He was always to be able to conquer in war and do the wise thing in peace.

This beatific condition lasted until the rebellion, and after it. The war was in some degree sobering, but the falsification of nearly all the hostile vaticination about it deprived it of the educational effects which wars usually have. We became pleased with the rebellion because it was so big, and with the debt because it was so heavy. We began paying it off with merriment, as if paying national debts was a "raising bee," and we almost refused to get back to specie payments, because this seemed commonplace and a sign of doubt. The tariff men were the first to take advantage of this tremendous cheerfulness. They said: "See how jolly and hopeful they are. Let us make them pay up. They won't complain, no matter what duty we clap on their clothes and tools. They will say, it is American to have things dear; that love of cheapness is a fad of the fusty Old World." So they began to try their tariff on us, and made it heavier and heavier as the years rolled by; but we never squealed. It would have been European or English to squeal, so we bid them pile it on, and see how Americans could bear taxation and how they revelled in dearness.

That the press liars forbore so long to follow the example of the tariff men is surprising. We seemed just the material for lying newspapers to make money out of, a hopeful, credulous people, fond of wonderful stories about our own strength and prowess, and as boastful about our own capacity as the old bards about the exploits of their chiefs. "Let us stuff them," at last said the Liars; "they will buy and believe anything we invent." Our success in the war of 1812, when any trading schooner could be converted into a man-of-war by putting guns on board of her, and when we learned to fight on as long as the carpenter could stop up the shot-holes, prodigiously fostered our readiness for naval warfare. But the invention of the iron-clad, with its electrical, clock-like machinery, its exposure to shells bursting between decks, its tendency to be sunk by unseen torpedoes, is a serious blow to us. The iron-clad is essentially a solemn machine. It inspires gravity. It is essentially a kill-joy. There is no room for jollity on it. Then the quick-firing guns are hostile to valor. There seems to be only one way to show contempt for them, and that is by letting their bullets into your body. But it is an ill wind that blows nobody good. They are worth double the old wooden ships to the lying newspaper reporter. He can weave ten yarns about an iron-clad for one about a brig, or sloop-of-war, or a frigate, or a first-rate. There is a mouthful in the term "battle-ship" to which neither frigate nor first-rate can lay claim, and for boys and loafers it is a mine of mystery and wonder. So between the iron-clads and eagerness for excitement, the lying newspaper, following on the greedy tariff man, has been able to make a pot of money out of our excitability.

But his good times are going. As our problems multiply and our sky becomes more overcast, the vainglorious and happy American of Jackson's day grows rarer. Unwillingness to believe becomes more general. Impossibilities increase. We are less sure of the future. The newspapers begin to find that there is money in preaching calm as well as in denouncing caution and calling for revenge. We hear more and more that judgment is a thing to be "suspended" until you know the facts; that, in truth, judgment is mainly meant for suspension, and that if it is not suspended, it ceases to be judgment. We are entering, in fact, on another world, in which the new American smiles gravely over the jigs and hornpipes of the old one. *Tempora mutantur et nos mutamur in illis*, as Croker would say.

THE SITUATION IN SPAIN.

It was announced on Friday that a royal decree was at once to issue dissolving the Spanish Cortes and fixing the election of Deputies for the new Cortes on March 23. The half of the Senate chosen by popular vote will be elected on April 3, and the Cortes summoned on April 25. Cuba and Porto Rico are to choose their representatives in the national Parliament at the same time.

No one, of course, has the slightest doubt what the result of these elections will be. In Spain the Government always wins. This is one of the "cosas de España" of which natives will speak to you with wide-eyed wonder that you should find them strange. The whole thing is arranged most amicably in advance. The Minister of the Interior, as we should call him, sends for the leaders of the opposition party, tells them how many seats the Government has decided it must have, how many are to be conceded to them, asks them to name the notabilities of their parties they would like returned, and from what districts, and the affair is arranged with the best of feeling on all sides. And the agreement is executed to the letter. Once or twice a minister has had the chagrin to see the voters in Bilbao, Barcelona, Madrid, and a few other stirring centres of population succeed in electing candi-

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dates of their own; but such accidents are rare. In the existing Cortes the Conservatives had about 275 Deputies, the Liberals of all shades 110, the Carlists 10. The composition of the next Cortes is already announced in advance of its election. It seems the Liberals have decided that they must have 300 Deputies, in order to show a sweeping popular approval of their course. They will graciously allow the Conservatives a matter of 70 seats, the Carlists their 10, the groups of Republicans a score or so, if they do not, as in the last election, refuse to vote at all. The Socialists, who have pretty steadily refrained from taking any part in what they call, not without warrant, "the political comedy," are proposing to put forward candidates in several of the cities.

If Spain had no graver difficulties to face than that of renewing her Cortes in this facile way, men might call her happy. But her finances are confessedly worse than confused. Even before the Cuban war her debt was burdensome, her deficit chronic, and her credit impaired, and the frightful drain of men and money to which she has been subject in Cuba for three years past has driven her to loan after loan, on harder and harder terms, until now it is credibly reported that she can borrow no more, and that there is grave doubt if the interest on her former loans will be punctually paid. Yet Marshal Blanco's demands from Cuba are urgent in the extreme. He requires $8,000,000 a month for war expenses. He asks also for $4,000,000 a month on account of arrears due the army, navy, civil servants, pensioners, and contractors. These arrears amount to $80,000,000.

There can be no question that Spain is financially embarrassed. In an annual budget of $150,000,000 to $160,000,000, interest on Spanish debts absorbs nearly $65,000,000. This is an alarming state of affairs. Then there is the war debt piling up every day. How is that to be taken care of, even supposing the war to end speedily? Ruined Cuba cannot for years at least pay even as much as she was paying before; and the added indebtedness incurred on Cuban account must amount to $300,000,000. How to provide for this, how to apportion the shares of Spain and of Cuba, is so tough a problem that no attempt was made to solve it in the new scheme of Cuban autonomy. The difficulty was met by adjourning it to some indefinite time in the future.

These facts about the political and financial situation of Spain should delude nobody into thinking that Spain will not fight if forced to. In fact, the more desperate the plight of a nation, the more likely it is that she will fight. She has nothing to lose. Indeed, it may be plausibly maintained that Spain has much to gain, even by going into a war where she would know herself predestined to be beaten. The Cuban indebtedness is variously estimated at from $400,000,000 to $500,000,000. This debt, if Spain were to lose Cuba by war, she would undoubtedly repudiate, or scale to a vanishing minimum. There is her great money stake even in a losing contest. She would have, besides, the powerful motive of mantaining her ancient proud bearing, of yielding only to a nation of five times her population and twenty times her resources, instead of to a handful of rebels, and of demonstrating that Spanish pride and spirit remain unbroken if beaten.

Senator Sumner, when spoken to by "Bull Run" Russell about the possibility of the South taking up arms, was contemptuously incredulous. "Never!" he exclaimed. "They are too crafty. Bullies! Braggarts! They would be assassins, some of them, if they dared—but fair fight, never!" We hear no little magnificent scorning of the Spaniards in just that vein, and it is as lamentably mistaken. The Spanish people are as patriotic a race as ever lived. The impulse of a splendid past is still upon them. Traditions of national valor, dating from a time when their infantry swept Europe and their navies drove the dreaded Turk from the Mediterranean, are a part of their life-blood. Threatened bankruptcy, certain defeat in the long run, will not for a moment deter that proud nation from fighting for its honor. It was a Spanish paper, the *Imparcial*, which said defiantly some months ago that a bankrupt nation might still be a fighting nation. We must not deceive ourselves on this point. Spain is no doubt anxious for peace. She will no doubt make every concession to us or to the Cubans compatible with her dignity and honor as a nation. But if driven into a corner she will unquestionably fight.

A NEW KIND OF PRIMARY.

The bill which the advocates of honest primaries in this city have prepared and sent to Albany is a decidedly revolutionary measure. It does away entirely with the old style of primary, so far as the great political parties are concerned, and substitutes in its place an election under control of State officials and at the expense of the State. It proposes to take away the control of the primaries from the political organizations almost as completely as the new ballot system has taken from them the control of elections. Instead of being, as at present, subject to no law except the will of the boss, primaries will be held under legal regulations closely resembling those which apply to our elections; and the boss and his Boys will be deprived of all those privileges which at present make the primaries the centre of their activities and the chief seat of their power, for both the enrolment of voters and the balloting at primary elections will be removed from their control.

The bill proposes to put the primary elections of all parties in cities of the first and second class under a primary law. It provides that any voter, on any of the four days set apart for registration preceding an election, shall be given an opportunity to enroll himself as a member of a political organization. After he has registered his name as a voter, he will be asked by the registration officials if he wishes to enroll for the purpose of participating in a primary election. In case he does he will name the political party with which he expects to act, and his name will be placed upon its rolls. In case his right to enroll with a party is challenged, he must sign a declaration or answer certain questions to show that he is in general sympathy with the principles of the party which he has named, and that his present intention is to vote with it at the ensuing election. The declaration is in the most liberal terms, and affords ample opportunity for any voter, who wishes to have political affiliations, to ally himself with one party or another. In case a voter who, for any reason, has failed to enroll himself during the four days of registration, desires to do so, he can do so subsequently at any time, except the period of thirty days immediately preceding the official primary days, by filing with the proper custodian of the rolls a written statement embodying the declaration required, in case of challenge, on regular registration days.

All voters, enrolled in either manner, are entitled to take part in the official primary elections which are to be held on what will be known as primary day, which is to be the seventh Tuesday before the general election. This would place it early in September. When delegates to State conventions are to be chosen, an additional primary day is fixed on the Tuesday following the first Monday in June. The elections on primary day are to be conducted in much the same way as regular elections. They are to be in charge of the regular election inspectors, and the members of all parties are to vote in the same room. The polls are to be open throughout the day, so that there will be no meeting at any particular time. Official ballots are not required, but all ballots are to be of a prescribed size and shape, and each party is to have an easily distinguishable color. Each voter is required to prepare his ballot in a booth, to fold it in such a way as not to reveal its names, and to deposit it in the box set apart for the ballots of the political party to which he belongs. The conduct of the elections is to be in all important respects like that required at regular elections, which includes, we infer from the text of the bill, the keeping away from the polls of all electioneering and bulldozing persons, or those whose chief

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business in politics has been the running of primaries. The vote is to be counted under the same conditions as at regular elections, with watchers in behalf of the parties and candidates, and announced officially when the result is reached.

The bill also provides for revision by the courts of all the proceedings taken under it, and gives the Supreme Court summary jurisdiction, upon complaint of any citizen, as to the neglect or misconduct of any official acting under it. Violation of the act is made a misdemeanor, punishable by a fine of not less than $100 nor more than $1,000, or by imprisonment of not less than three months nor more than one year, or by both fine and imprisonment. Political parties which polled less than 10,000 votes at the last preceding election are exempt from the law in so far that they are permitted to hold unofficial primaries, subject to certain regulations.

These are the main features of the bill; we have given only an outline of its general provisions. There are matters of detail which are of more interest to politicians than to the general public. The great advantages of the bill are, first, that it abolishes the old primary utterly in abolishing a meeting of any kind; second, that it insures publicity for the rolls of all parties, which are to be open at all times for inspection, and published in the same manner as the registration lists are; third, that by giving all voters an opportunity to enroll on the day upon which they register, thus putting the question before them at a time when it is most likely to receive favorable consideration, and not requiring special effort on their part, like going out in the evening to some unknown place, the chances for obtaining a large enrolment are greatly increased; fourth, that by having an entire day devoted to primary voting, the hours extending from eight A. M. to eight P. M., and having all the danger of a conflict with the Boys removed, the average citizen will be far more likely to attend to his primary duties than he has been heretofore.

The measure may not be a perfect one. It is entirely possible that it has defects which might enable the bosses and their men, in case they allow it to become a law, to "beat" it, and use it for their own purposes. But, admitting all this, it is an experiment in the right direction, and a trial of it would furnish a very interesting study. It would serve as a test of the disposition of the average citizen to bear his part in this branch of the business of government.

FRENCH CRIMINAL PROCEDURE.

A good deal of astonishment and some laughter have been excited by the Zola trial in Paris, and a large number of Frenchmen have been annoyed by the general disposition of the Anglo-Saxon world—that is, the public of America and England—to sympathize with Zola, and condemn or ridicule the procedure under which he has been convicted. This is not unnatural. We probably do not completely understand French feeling in the matter; but it is plain, on the other hand, that many excellent Frenchmen do not understand ours. A little explanation, therefore, may do good.

In the first place, there is no use in trying to justify to an American or Englishman a secret proceeding, by which a man is deprived of life, liberty, property, or reputation. A large number of officers of high standing pledged their word of honor in Paris that Dreyfus had been properly convicted and was guilty. One general asked leave to address a few remarks on this subject to the jury before he gave his testimony. We are asked, in short, to believe that Dreyfus is guilty because so many men of high character say so. Here is where the Anglo-American and the French public first part company. If in America or in England all the clergy and all the citizens of highest repute were to come forward and offer to swear that a man who had been secretly tried and convicted deserved his fate, they would be received, as the French generals have been received here, with shouts of laughter. The reason is that for two centuries, in Anglo-Saxon jurisprudence, a "fair trial" has meant a public trial, and the submission to the public, in the presence of the prisoner, of all the proofs against him. At least two hundred years have passed since it was possible among English-speaking men "to go upon, or send upon" any one, to use the words of Magna Charta, upon evidence not produced in a court open to the public, or for any "reasons of state." Therefore, there is for us no getting over the secrecy of Dreyfus's trial. No certificate of fairness from any one, were it the Pope of Rome, will satisfy the public that a man was lawfully ruined or executed if he was tried in secret. An offer of one by anybody sounds to us like a joke.

In the next place, we are startled by the fact that the French not only have no "rules of evidence" like ours, but have none at all. A trial like Zola's, therefore, without rules of evidence strikes us as comic. Here is Fitzjames Stephen's account of the difference in the matter of evidence between the French system and ours:

> "These leading rules, though qualified by important exceptions, are rigidly enforced in practice, and their enforcement gives to English trials that solid character which is their special characteristic. They seem to be quite unknown in French procedure. Witnesses say what they please and must not be interrupted, and masses of irrelevant, and often malicious, hearsay, which would never be admitted into an English court at all, are allowed to go before French juries and prejudice their feelings. The old rules of evidence, which were in use before the Revolution, and were drawn from the middle-age version of the Roman law, were exceedingly technical and essentially foolish. They were accordingly abolished absolutely, and nothing was put in their place. The essentially scientific though superficially technical rules of evidence which give their whole color to English trials, and which grew up silently and very gradually in our courts, seem to me to be just what is wanted to bring French trials into a satisfactory shape; but the evils of the old system were so strongly impressed on the authors of the 'Code d'Instruction Criminelle' that destruction was the only policy which presented itself to their minds." ('History of Criminal Law,' vol. 1., p. 548.)

In fact, the investigation in a French criminal trial is carried on just as investigations are carried on in private life. If a private individual wants to form an opinion as to whether somebody, say in his own household, has done something, he gets information in any way he can from any quarter whatever. Hearsay, circumstantial evidence, the talk of interested persons, the gabble of children, are all collected by him, and on it all he forms his own theory of probability. Half of it would probably be rejected in a legal proceeding in our courts, but this is the way in which most men regulate their own conduct of life and carry on their own business. The French carry it into their legal proceedings for want of anything better. The *dossier*, which is made up by the *juge d'instruction*, about a prisoner when he is first apprehended, is very like the "story" which, with us, would be collected by a newspaper reporter. Everything that he can get hold of, good, bad, or indifferent, likely or unlikely, is tossed into the basket, and the prisoner is harassed by cross-examination on it by the judge. The consequence is that a French trial never seems to us fair or serious. The evidence of the generals in Zola's trial about the propriety of Dreyfus's conviction sounds like a comedy.

Moreover—and this is the worst of it—the popular excitement which has attended the trial about "the honor of the army" and about the Jews, reminds us here painfully of some of the great judicial tragedies of French history. We think of other cases in which French courts were undeniably influenced by popular clamor. It was the clamor of the Catholic populace which led the Parlement of Toulouse to convict poor old Calas of the murder of his son, although this populace was in the habit of celebrating the massacre of St. Bartholomew as a public festival. There was neither evidence nor a shade of probability against Calas. But the Parlement, of more than twelve judges, took the popular view, summoned all sorts of witnesses who shared it, extracted Calas's guilt from them by leading questions, broke the old man on the wheel, and expected his confessions under torture to furnish evidence to convict his sons and wife. When this failed them, they were compelled to discharge them, and when, under Voltaire's whip of scorpions, they were compelled to re-

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verse their finding, and do what could be done to rehabilitate the afflicted family, one of the arguments against this scanty justice was that to reverse was to acknowledge mistake, and this would injure the prestige of the court.

The fate of the Chevalier de Labarre, a youth who was "roué" on evidence that would convulse one of our public schools, was a similar scandal. He was convicted of "irreverence" and "blasphemy" under popular and ecclesiastical clamor. In both these cases the courts convicted an innocent man mainly to safeguard some great public interest, which happened in both these cases to be what was called "religion." Remembering these things, and others like them, our public naturally asks whether this clamor against the Jews and frantic concern about the "honor of the army" has not led to the sacrifice of an innocent man. It asks this question, and nothing but ample publicity will appease its suspicions.

Let us say finally that the French procedure is simply the old English procedure. The trials of Throckmorton, of the Duke of Norfolk, and of Raleigh in the sixteenth century, were very much what goes on in a French court to-day. The judges, the Attorney-General, and the prisoner all "went for each other" as fiercely as they could, and with as little regard for rules. Most people remember the savage way in which Coke treated Raleigh. It was not till after the Revolution of 1688 that English criminal procedure became marked by the present order and decency, and that the presumption of innocence on the part of accused persons secured a lodgment in our jurisprudence. Stephen ascribes this to the growing strength of the Government, which gradually became so great that it became easy to be indulgent towards prisoners and captives. Whether this theory be correct or not, it would go some way to account for the continuance down to our day of the French presumption that an accused man is probably guilty. Ever since the Revolution, no French government has been sufficiently strong to give any indulgence to accused persons. The interests of the State seem to require that indicted men should be found guilty. And so deeply has this theory entered into the public mind that when "justice" gets hold of a man, there is little sympathy for him. His wrongs do not touch the popular imagination, and the judge and the procureur are allowed to harass him without mercy. The supposition that he is being sacrificed to protect some body or person in authority, does not rouse popular indignation.

M. RENÉ DOUMIC.

PARIS, February 15, 1898.

At the end of this week Prof. René Doumic sails from Havre for New York in order to inaugurate at the Cercle Français of Harvard University the lectureship on French literature recently established by Mr. J. H. Hyde of the senior class. As M. Doumic's name is comparatively new in the French world of letters (even the latest edition of Vapereau contains no mention of him), some account of him and his work will probably be welcomed in American university centres where he is about to appear—Yale, Columbia, Chicago, probably Cornell and other institutions, besides Harvard, will listen to him—and where I predict he will excite much admiration.

I begin, therefore, with what does not exist—a brief and strictly biographical notice of M. Doumic, including a list of his published books. René Doumic was born in Paris on March 7, 1860, so that he is not yet thirty-eight years old, and belongs himself to "les Jeunes" whom he celebrates in one of his latest volumes. He was educated at the Condorcet Lycée, perhaps the best of the Paris secondary schools. He has always been a hard and brilliant student, for he was graduated *licencié-ès-lettres* in April, 1879, with the highest honors, was first at the examination held in the same year for entrance into the Superior Normal School, and was again ranked first at the *agrégation* examinations of 1882. From 1882 to 1896 he taught literature in the lycées of the provinces and Paris, but has been on leave of absence since the last-mentioned year. In 1887 M. Doumic began to contribute to the newspapers and periodicals, in which year he was made dramatic critic of the venerable daily, the *Moniteur Universel*, continuing to fill this post till 1894. In the meantime he wrote for that highly respectable but ultra-conservative bi-monthly the *Correspondant*, and that once important weekly, the *Revue Bleue*. In 1893 he formed a connection with the quondam famous *Journal des Débats*, where he has ever since published literary *chroniques* and critical articles. It was in August, 1893, that M. Doumic made his first appearance in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, where, during 1894 and 1895, he had charge of the department of dramatic criticism, and where he has, since the last date, conducted, with so much authority, the *chronique littéraire*, succeeding, in this department, M. Brunetière. In 1896 M. Doumic was created a chevalier of the Legion of Honor in recognition of his literary merits.

M. Doumic's first volume was a schoolbook, 'Histoire de la Littérature Française,' and it has been followed each year by one or two volumes, until the series has attained the respectable number of eight, all of which have to do with literature or men of letters. The list is as follows: 'Portraits d'Écrivains' (1892), 'De Scribe à Ibsen' (1893), 'Écrivains d'Aujourd'hui' (1894), 'Les Jeunes' (1895), 'La Vie et les Mœurs au Jour le Jour' (1895), 'Études sur la Littérature Française, Première Série' (1896), 'Essais sur le Théâtre Contemporain' (1896), 'Études sur la Littérature Française, Deuxième Série' (1897). Nor are there any signs of M. Doumic's literary fecundity becoming exhausted. On the contrary, it is evident that even greater and better things are sure to come from his pen. He is even now engaged in writing the chapters on the drama in the nineteenth century for Petit de Julleville's 'Histoire de la Littérature Française,' a monumental work which has already been mentioned several times in your columns. For Hachette's series of the "Grands Écrivains Français," M. Doumic is to prepare the volume on Lamartine. And finally, these Harvard lectures, which M. Doumic has only just completed, are to form part of a work not yet finished, to be entitled 'Mouvement Intellectuel en France au XIXe Siècle.'

The Harvard lectures are devoted to French Romanticism. The first is of a general nature, a seeking after the origin of Romanticism, an attempt to define it and to mark the different stages of its development. Then will come three lectures on lyricism—on Lamartine and Alfred de Vigny studied only in their lyric poetry; on Victor Hugo's work prior to 1840, the date at which M. Doumic fixes the limit of Romanticism; and on Sainte-Beuve's poetry and that of Alfred de Musset. The drama of Romanticism will occupy two lectures, in which M. Doumic will deal briefly with the theories of the Romanticists concerning the stage and what they pretend to have borrowed from foreign dramatic writers. He will characterize the plays of Victor Hugo, will dwell briefly on those of the Elder Dumas and of Alfred de Vigny, and will enter more at length into an examination of the plays and proverbs of De Musset. Another lecture will be given up to a consideration of the *romans de passion* personified in George Sand, and still another to history, beginning with Augustin Thierry and ending with Michelet. In his final lecture, M. Doumic will give in full and in order his own views and conclusions concerning the whole subject of French Romanticism.

What these opinions will be it is not very difficult to divine, for, scattered through M. Doumic's published writings, is more than one dictum on this subject. In his study of the elder Dumas in 'De Scribe à Ibsen,' to give but one example out of many, we find him saying: "One of the dogmas dear to Romanticism teaches us that the requirements of art are incompatible with the conditions of a regular life. . . . But this theory is erroneous," he goes on to add, and then makes a vigorous thrust at all Bohemia. These two devices, so often attributed to Romanticism, "Le beau c'est le laid," and "L'extravagant vaut mieux que le plat," find no refuge in M. Doumic's mind, where order, beauty, and high morality rule supreme. It is safe to say, therefore, that he will not be an unqualified eulogist of French Romanticism, but, while admiring its many fine qualities, will ruthlessly condemn its faults, ridicule its extravagances, and even sometimes anathematize its fuglemen.

But not the least admirable feature of M. Doumic's performance will be its oratorical quality. That there will be good and high thinking in what he says cannot be doubted. His printed books and the success which has accompanied him both as a student and as a teacher, put this beyond question. When, in addition, he may be pronounced in several essential particulars a real orator, the treat which awaits his hearers will be seen to be no ordinary one. It is true that his thin, highly pitched voice may be against him, for it probably will not carry to the rear of our public halls or large college lecture-rooms, especially as he is accustomed to speak in the Lilliputian La Bodinière and Salle des Mathurins. Nor will his gestures contribute to his success as a lecturer. Seated in his chair, he keeps continually bending forward and backward, marking the end of every phrase, almost every word in fact, with a short, awkward little movement of the forearm and hand, which is rendered the more

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stiff and ungraceful by his keeping the elbow pinned tightly to his side. This action goes on for five or ten minutes with the right arm, varied now and then with a more ample gesture with the two arms, and then the left forearm and hand go through the same motion while the weary member rests. The most expressive part of this act is in the fingers, which are all brought together at the end of the thumb, against which they are pressed more or less firmly, in order to give greater or minor emphasis to the speaker's words. But it is the excellent choice of these words, the brilliancy with which they are marshalled, the clearness and pointedness of the statement, the humor of the expression, and the occasional bursts of passionate eloquence (which strike with all the more force because they come from a rather cold exterior), that cause the hearer to overlook and even forget these shortcomings of voice and gesture. Then, too, M. Doumic's enunciation is very distinct and measured. He speaks slowly most of the time, so that even ears not much accustomed to the French language will be able to catch almost all that he says. When, however, he works himself up to a pitch, the words flow very rapidly, and then it is that many of his American listeners will have to content themselves, I fear, with his oratory rather than with his thoughts and language.

M. Doumic's tendency to indulge in humor, wit, irony, is pronounced. His lectures are thickly besprinkled with these turns, as are his books, whereas his conversation, curiously enough, is almost free from them—is, in fact, so sober as to be almost solemn. 'La Vie et les Mœurs,' for example, is one series of amusing and clever skits. But perhaps the chief reason why M. Doumic's lectures are so enjoyable lies in the fact that they are neither read from a manuscript nor committed to memory; memorizing, as he once remarked to me, "gives to the word something that is cold and without accent." He has two ways of proceeding. When he has to treat a question of the hour, a modern literary subject, M. Doumic writes his lecture in full in order to bring out clearly his ideas for his own edification, and he then delivers it on these same lines, reproducing the order and substance of the manuscript, but without confining himself to the exact penned words. When, however, he speaks on classical themes, with which he has become very familiar through teaching them for the past fifteen years, M. Doumic does not write out his lecture, but provides himself only with a few notes on a slip of paper, and trusts to improvisation for the rest. This is his constant practice in the classroom. In both cases he avoids as much as possible any reference to manuscript or paper, "always striving to keep in direct communication with the audience"—as he expresses it, "eyes looking into eyes."

M. Doumic, in his American tour, will reap considerable advantage from M. Brunetière's visit to our universities last year, for the latter has, in many respects, prepared the way for him. M. Doumic not only belongs to the same critical school* as M. Brunetière and resembles him in many respects, but has come forward into the literary arena under his protection and guidance. It is not rash to predict that when M. Doumic is received into the French Academy, as he surely will be in the not distant future, the editor of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* will be one of his "parrains." In fact, M. Doumic does not try to disown this high patronage. On the contrary, he appears ever ready to acknowledge it publicly and to show that he is even proud of it. Thus, the dedication of the first series of his 'Études sur la Littérature Française' is addressed to "My dear master"—that is, M. Brunetière—and runs as follows:

"In begging you to accept this dedication, I but recognize a debt, for it was you who, by calling me to the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, offered me the occasion to write these essays. But besides this I have always drawn largely on your advice, your ideas, your works. These essays owe much to you. It is a pleasure as well as a duty for me to make this statement. I am happy to offer you this proof, feeble though it be, of my respect, *my devotion, and my profound gratitude.*"

Like M. Brunetière, M. Doumic is opposed to schoolboy athletics (see his amusing skit, "Nouvelle Sorbonne," in 'La Vie et les Mœurs'). But Brunetière's influence, or, if you prefer it, the resemblance between the two minds, comes out strongest in M. Doumic's distaste for Zola and Zolaism, for this author's works and his methods. In the volume just cited is an excellent bit of ironical writing which dwells on the Barnum side of Zola's character, "whose art consists in making something out of nothing." Doumic is, again, a disciple of Brunetière in holding that eloquence has its part in the teaching of literature. In his essay already cited on Brunetière, M. Doumic praises him for having "restored to literary instruction a singularly discredited element — eloquence." That M. Brunetière practises what he preaches you had a good opportunity last year of confirming, and that M. Doumic follows in his footsteps in this matter has already been shown in this letter; and my opinion, I feel sure, will also be shared in a few weeks by the American university public.

"There exists a sort of hollow declamation," M. Doumic says in the essay just named, "made up of oratorical movements and bombastic phrases, by means of which some professors and many lecturers have succeeded in so disgusting studious listeners that they have forced them to prefer even impoverished dryness. But can any one believe that the grand university lectures which made the first half of this century famous would have produced such a deep impression on the public mind if Villemain, Guizot, Michelet, and the rest had contented themselves with a simple *exposé* of facts, without binding these facts together and without expressing their own opinion concerning them? To bear in mind not simply that what one says is of interest to those in search of mere instruction, but that it is also linked with the general welfare of humanity, and to express these truths with inward feeling based on patient study and carefully reasoned conviction—this is quite the contrary of mere declamation: it is eloquence."

Perhaps I may add in closing, that M. René Doumic will be accompanied in his American tour by his brother, M. Max Doumic, a well-known Government architect, who has undertaken a mission from the Minister of Fine Arts to study the architectural movement in the United States, and especially the installation of our libraries. M. Max Doumic, I may further say, received his first medal at the Salon of 1894, is the only French architect who has won the Salon *recompense* known as the Prix de Paris, and is occupied at this moment in executing some restorations for the city of Douai.

THEODORE STANTON.

*Here is M. Doumic's definition of criticism: "Criticism is not a science and it cannot become one. Between the object which criticism has in view and the object of all the sciences there exist fundamental differences which it would be exceedingly dangerous not to recognize. Science is general. The powers of science stop where the individual commences. Now, literary history has to do with the great writers, men of genius, for the very purpose of determining what there is in them that is individual and therefore irreducible. . . . You may compare a literary work to a plant, but it must not be forgotten that this is only a comparison, and that criticism is not natural history nor any other science. It is essentially an art." It is to be noted that this extract is from the essay on M. Brunetière in Doumic's 'Écrivains d'Aujourd'hui.' This same view will be found more than once in Brunetière's works, and especially in his 'Questions de Critique' and 'Nouvelles Questions de Critique.'

ENGLISH LITERATURE IN THE ENGLISH UNIVERSITIES.

LONDON, January, 1898.

The attempt to teach English, and especially English literature, as a separate subject is a comparatively new thing among the universities everywhere. That this attempt should be newer in England itself than elsewhere seems paradoxical enough, but it is a fact perfectly explicable from the traditions of English education and the ancient and ingrained conservatism of the older English universities. Changes, however, are rapidly coming on, even at Oxford and Cambridge, and the national literature, if not yet completely taught, has attained at Oxford at least recognition as a fit subject for examination, and thus, by implication if not otherwise, for teaching also.

Naturally it has long seemed an anomaly that of the hundreds of American students who annually go abroad to carry on advanced study in the English language and literature (the greater number of them in the German universities), so small a proportion should resort to England and the English universities. It is not surprising, perhaps, that Germany should attract the students of Germanics and Linguistics, but, with the recent widespread and rapid development of the college study of literature considered in its critical, æsthetic, and historical aspects, it is surely to be wished that the sounder traditions of English æsthetic feeling in matters of literature and the less scholastic tone of English literary criticism should be brought to bear and made operative in a school of literature in one or more of the English universities, where, among other things, especial provision should be made for the resort of foreign students who are seeking to study the literature of England in the land of its origin. I say that this is to be wished; but I suppose that, as a matter of fact, with the addition of a professor of English literature and some two or three assistants to render effective in actual instruction a plan which now exists, for all except Old and Middle English topics, chiefly on paper, the new Honour School of English Language and Literature at Oxford would come near to providing the opportunities desired. But Oxford now, as always, is in favor of making haste slowly, and a certain insular and reactionary element there opposes and retards the progress of the reformers. Cambridge would probably be found more well-disposed to the new ideas, but Cambridge lacks the means requisite for the carrying out of such considerable changes and additions as such reforms involve. Meanwhile, it is within the range of future possibilities that the new London teaching university, whose present establishment, in one form or another, seems to be practically assured, may take the lead of both Oxford and Cambridge in the new studies, and ultimately make London one of the world's

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centres for advanced study in English as in other branches. Certainly the policy of the present university (with its affiliated institutions), while holding, with English insistence, to the overweighted examination system, has in other respects been generally the most liberal and progressive of all.

Outside of the older universities, among the numerous English colleges of recent foundation and in the Scotch universities, English studies are rapidly growing; and, while the number of courses and the amount of class instruction in English literature since Chaucer, except that which is of a comparatively elementary nature, seem to be still rather limited—the primary emphasis still being laid on the intensive curriculum and on the final tests by examination to which everything in English education is subordinated—it should be noted that these studies are based on a safe if somewhat obsolete educational tradition, and that a body of competent teachers, animated with progressive ideas, has these studies in charge. Moreover, the definite limitation of the curriculum, while lessening the stimulus to highly specialized research afforded by the more flexible and more ambitious courses in many German and some American universities, has the compensating advantage of leaving the teacher free, after once his routine is mastered, for independent and unfettered critical and productive work. Such work, of highly respectable quality and quantity, we are already beginning to receive from this class of English scholars.

The soul of a college is in its teachers, and the status and progress of recent English college work dealing with English subjects perhaps cannot be better exhibited than in the following list* of college instructors in English in Great Britain, most of whose names, attached to the title-pages of recent publications as authors or editors, are already known to American readers. The list exhibits fairly the comparative strength of the departments of English of the several colleges and universities concerned. (I have not attempted to account for any of the colleges for the teaching of women.)

OXFORD:
A. S. Napier, Merton Professor of English Philology.
John Earle, Rawlinsonian Professor of Anglo-Saxon.
W. J. Courthope, Professor of Poetry.
Jos. Wright, Deputy Professor of Comparative Philology.
E. de Sélincourt (University College), Lecturer in English Literature.
Rev. H. C. Beeching, Lecturer in English Literature.

CAMBRIDGE:
Rev. W. W. Skeat, Professor of Anglo-Saxon.
I Gollancz, University Lecturer in English.
Prof. E. Dowden (Trinity College), Clark Lecturer in English Literature.
Rev. J. H. Gray (Queens College), Lecturer in English Literature.
A. J. Wyatt (Christ's College), "Recognized Lecturer."

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON:
J. W. Hales, I. Gollancz } Examiners in English Language, Literature, and History.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, LONDON:
W. P. Ker, Professor of English Philology.
T. Gregory Foster, Lecturer in English Language and Literature.

KING'S COLLEGE, LONDON:
J. W. Hales, Professor of English Philology.
C. D. Webb, Professor of English Philology.

VICTORIA UNIVERSITY:
(1.) *Owens College, Manchester.*
A. W. Ward, Principal.
T. N. Toller, Professor of the English Language.
Oliver Elton, Lecturer in English Literature.
(2.) *University College, Liverpool.*
Walter Raleigh, Professor of Modern Literature and the English Language.
R. Priebsch, Lecturer in the English Language.
(3.) *Yorkshire College, Leeds.*
A. J. Grant, Professor of Modern History and English Literature and Language.

MASON UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, BIRMINGHAM:
W. M. Dixon, Professor of English Language and Literature.
W. A. Brockington, Assistant Lecturer in the English Language and Literature.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, SHEFFIELD:
G. C. Moore Smith, Professor of English Language and Literature.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, BRISTOL:
Jas. Rowley, Professor of Modern History and English Literature.
C. Ord, Lecturer in Modern History, English Literature, and German.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, NOTTINGHAM:
J. E. Symes, Professor of History, Literature, and Political Economy.
F. E. Bumby, Professor of Anglo-Saxon and Middle English.

DURHAM COLLEGE OF SCIENCE, NEWCASTLE UPON-TYNE:
J. W. Duff, Professor of Literature.

RUTHERFORD COLLEGE, NEWCASTLE-UPON-TYNE:
J. Greenfield, C. Menmuir } Classics and English.

UNIVERSITY OF WALES:
(1.) *University College of Wales, Aberystwyth.*
C. H. Herford, Professor of English Philology.
F. W. Moorman, Assistant Lecturer in English (until recently).
(2.) *University College of Wales, Bangor.*
W. L. Jones, Professor of English Language and Literature.
(3.) *University College of Wales, Cardiff.*
C. E. Vaughan, Professor of English Language, Literature, and History.
(4.) *St. David's College, Lampeter, Wales.*
Hugh Walker, Professor of English and Philosophy.

UNIVERSITY OF EDINBURGH:
George Saintsbury, Professor of Rhetoric and English Literature.
G. G. Smith, Lecturer in English.
S. A. Robertson, Examiner in English.

UNIVERSITY OF GLASGOW:
Andrew C. Bradley, Professor of English Language and Literature.
Robt. Adamson, Professor of Logic and Rhetoric.
D. H. Crawford, Assistant in English.

UNIVERSITY OF ABERDEEN:
H. J. C. Grierson, Professor of English Language and Literature.
C. I. Beattie, Lecturer in English.
J. H. Lobban, Examiner in English.

UNIVERSITY OF ST. ANDREWS:
W. S. McCormick, Lecturer in English.
(Wm. Knight, Professor of Moral Philosophy).

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, DUNDEE:
W. S. McCormick, Professor of English Language and Literature.
R. K. Hannay, Lecturer in English Language and Literature.

THE ROYAL UNIVERSITY OF IRELAND, DUBLIN (Examining University):
Thos. Arnold, Jos. Darlington, S. J. MacMullan, Geo. F. Armstrong, Mary T. Hayden } Fellow, English Language and Literature.

THE QUEEN'S UNIVERSITY OF IRELAND:
(1.) *Queen's College, Belfast.*
S. J. MacMullan, Professor of History and English Literature.
(2.) *Queen's College, Cork.*
G. F Savage-Armstrong, Professor of History and English Literature.
(3.) *Queen's College, Galway.*
Sir Thos. Moffett, Professor of History, English Literature and Mental Science.

THE UNIVERSITY OF DUBLIN:
Edward Dowden, Professor of Oratory and English Literature.

Leaving out of account the more independent curricula of the Scottish and Irish universities and a few sporadic cases in England, there are two well-defined types of curricula in English in these institutions. There are, first, the courses in those colleges which aim to fit for the examinations of the University of London. The requirements of the University of Wales offer some modifications of the London scheme, but the two curricula are essentially similar. Most of the recently founded "University Colleges" in England offer the London type. The second type is that of Oxford, adopted also by several of the smaller colleges affiliated with Oxford. The courses designed to meet the present requirements of the London examinations, in the Pass and Honor schools, generally cover the following ground: Anglo-Saxon Grammar and Reader; Chaucer's "Man of Lawes Tale"; usually four courses in the "History of English Literature" divided into periods, viz., 1558-1603, 1603-1625, 1625-1660, 1660-1689, in which the books especially examined upon are the following: Spenser's 'Shepherd's Calendar' and the 'Faerie Queene,' Book I., Shakspere's "King John," "Tempest," "King Lear," and "Hamlet," Lamb's 'Specimens of the Elizabethan Dramatists,' Bacon's 'Essays,' Milton's "Comus," "L'Allegro," "Il Penseroso," "Lycidas," and 'Areopagitica,' Browne's 'Religio Medici,' and portions of Ward's 'English Poets.' In other years other periods and texts are chosen. English history and literature are generally combined in the same courses. Preliminary to this work are courses preparing for the "Matriculation Examinations" in the History of the English Language, the Principles of English Rhetoric and Grammar, and the study of selected modern authors.

The Oxford scheme, now in effect as an examination system (the first set of examinations has already been held), is much more comprehensive and thoroughgoing than any other, and, barring what seem to an outsider to be two radical defects, should be of a sort to attract the foreign student—if, indeed, Oxford desires the foreign student.* These defects are, first, the fact, already mentioned, that the scheme is as yet largely a scheme on paper; and, secondly, the inordinate emphasis put upon the examinations. To most English educators it is accepted as axiomatic that the examination is the test and crown of a curriculum, to the point almost that examination even more than instruction is held to be the primary function of a university. American students looking towards England should bear in mind that this fact is always to be reckoned with. The Oxford scheme, it will be remembered, involves the following points: first of all, the study, tested by examinations, of three main topics required of all candidates, followed by or together with a special subject similarly tested for more advanced, detailed, and original study, selected as a general rule from a list of some fourteen suggested subjects (*e. g.*, "Italian literature as influencing English literature down to the death of Milton"). The three main topics are: (I) Por-

*Compiled from 'Minerva, Jahrbuch der gelehrten Welt,' 1898, and from 'Whitaker's Almanac,' 1898, and revised from the calendars or circulars of the institutions mentioned.

*On the regulations and provisions for advanced studies at the two English universities, see 'The Student's Handbook to the University and Colleges of Oxford' (The Clarendon Press, 1895), ch. xi., "Special Study and Research"; and MacAlister, 'Advanced Study and Research in the University of Cambridge' (The University Press, Cambridge, 1896).

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tions of English Authors ("set books") from 'Beowulf' to Shelley's "Adonais"—perhaps some thirty-five or forty texts, "to be studied (1) with reference to the forms of the language; (2) as examples of literature; and (3) in their relation to the history and thought of the period to which they belong"; (II) the History of the English Language (including Gothic); and (III) the History of English Literature, including "the History of Criticism and of style in prose and verse." But as a stricter safeguard, perhaps, than any other against easy-going "modern" methods, and "with the object of connecting ancient and modern literature," "it is provided that no one may be admitted to the English Honor School unless he has either obtained Honors in some other Final Honor School or has satisfied or obtained Honors from the Moderators in Greek and Latin Literature." The Board of Studies and the Examiners are charged with the duty of seeing that, in the first three main topics, "as far as possible equal weight is given to language and literature"; in his "special" subject the candidate may as he chooses concern himself with the language, or with literature, or with both.

I note in passing that to the Board of Studies is assigned the curious but important task "to name periods of the history of English literature, and to fix their limits." The periods thus named (or rather *not* named in five cases out of eight), with limits somewhat arbitrarily fixed, are as follows: to 1150; 1150-1400; 1400-1558; 1558-1637; 1637-1700; 1700-1745; 1745-1797; 1797-1850. I notice, also, that at Oxford, as in England generally, greater weight and attention are accorded to the literature of the Restoration and neo-classical periods than critical opinion in America generally is willing to grant to it. Those portions of the last Oxford examinations, as well as those in the Cambridge Mediæval and Modern Language Tripos* which bear upon English literature, seem to me to be thoroughly sound and at the same time "literary" in substance and spirit.

The point in which the English universities all unite is that the study of English literature shall not be dissociated from that of either English philology and linguistics or that of the other great European literatures. The English tradition, moreover, holds firmly to the historical spirit. Nowhere else, perhaps, are the texts themselves studied with more minute thoroughness, yet at the same time the literary and social history of the great literary periods is not slighted and depreciated, as has recently been the tendency with some American writers and in some American universities. A marked turn towards the study of comparative literature, as exemplified in the work of Profs. Herford, Ker, Dowden, and Saintsbury, is noticeable of late, rather, perhaps, outside of Oxford and Cambridge than in those centres. This tendency will perhaps before long get itself organized in actual university teaching.

In the new University Colleges throughout England, entrance examinations in English are generally required; and in the faculty of hardly any of them, however small, is there lacking a Professor or Lecturer in English. But the work of these colleges is generally of a comparatively elementary nature, and is more systematic and uniform than that of the American universities. Here, as in the older English universities, the study of English literature is still on too new and precarious a footing to permit of any welcome being accorded to the idea, which is here and there gaining ground in America, that this study should be made a cultural and coördinating study rather than primarily a disciplinary study. As things now are, the study of English literature must serve the same ends, be subject to the same tests, and compete point by point with other and older branches of study.

In the Scotch universities two interesting experiments in the study of English are being tried. At Edinburgh and at Glasgow honor degrees in English literature are now offered.* At Edinburgh the emphasis is put upon (1) "Rhetoric and the Principles of Literature," and (2) the History of English Literature, with especial attention to a selected period, including a list of set books. At Glasgow, besides the language and "British" History as subsidiary subjects, the General History of English Literature from 1350 is the main topic; involved with this topic is the study of a special period; so, too, three of the greater authors (chosen under certain limitations) are selected for special study and mastery.

To the advanced student, however, who knows methods, is capable of independent work, and can make his way amid the vast materials of the place, the British Museum, with its staff of experts and men of learning in every department, its unrivalled collections in English literature, and its hospitable and admirably organized system, is and will remain the great post-graduate university of England, and the Mecca for the American student who visits England with the aim of furthering his studies in English literature.

FREDERIC IVES CARPENTER.

*I am indebted to the kindness of Prof. A. S. Napier, who has done so much for the new School at Oxford, for a copy of the Oxford examination papers, and to that of Prof. J. W. Hales for a set of the Cambridge questions.

*So, too, at Owens College, Manchester, there is an interesting scheme of an Honor School in English, involving as prerequisite "a competent knowledge of Latin and of at least one modern language," and covering, in literature, such topics as follows: "(1) Specimens of English in its several stages, (2) Outlines of English Literature, (3) an Essay, (4) a Special Period of English Literature, with prescribed books, (5) an English Author or a selected subject from English Literature, (6) the History of Criticism, (7) a Dissertation on some subject selected by the candidate."

Correspondence.

THE PROPS OF YELLOW JOURNALISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Most of us who manage to preserve a little sanity in spite of the stench of the yellow journalism constantly in our nostrils, would feel a lively satisfaction if we might some day see, as predicted in the *Nation*, the readers of those sheets "arrested at the news-stands and locked up."

But are we to stop with locking up the readers, whose minds have fallen, little by little, victims to a morbid craving for sensation? How about the merchants who, by their advertisements, furnish the props for these rotten enterprises? Shall they go scot free who give money for missions and all good works out of one pocket and pay their thousands to these filthy newspapers out of the other? Nothing amazes me more than to see these advertisements cheek by jowl with the most execrable, abominable, shameful evidences of journalistic meanness, mendacity, and bad taste. The wealthy owner of a great "department store," who is also prominent in an evangelical congregation, and a good patron of the advertising columns of a paper which reeks with yellowness, justified this last, saying to me that when he advertised, he thought only whether or not such and such a medium reached the people most likely to purchase his wares. "I don't stand in my door," said he, "and assure myself of the morality of every shopper before letting her buy of me." Perhaps an equally confused idea of responsibility possesses the minds of the eminent men of letters whose contributions are seen in these papers, and the prominent clergymen, lawyers, and physicians who put their signatures to interviews with yellow reporters.

This good-natured yielding on the part of men of influence to the solicitations of the yellow journalists is one of the most discouraging signs in the whole miserable business.

WILLARD EMERSON KEYES.

BOSTON, February 24, 1898.

THE MAINE DISASTER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Even if it should be shown that the *Maine* was blown up by a Spanish mine or torpedo, that would not by any means prove that the crime was committed by Spanish hands. In fact, the probabilities would be the other way. The author of a crime is, almost always, the person who profits by it. Let us see what the Spaniards and the Cuban insurgents respectively would probably gain or lose by the destruction of the *Maine* by a Spanish torpedo or mine, supposing that such a crime was thereby fixed upon Spain:

CONSEQUENCES TO SPAIN.	CONSEQUENCES TO THE CUBAN INSURGENTS.
War with the United States, defeat, bloodshed, humiliation, financial ruin, revolution, anarchy, civil war, overthrow of reigning house and government. Loss of Cuba.	Independence of Cuba.

There is not the slightest doubt that there are in the Spanish army in Cuba hundreds of Cuban spies. It is probable that they have made it their business to ascertain the position of the mines and torpedoes in Havana harbor. Supposing that it was known to them that, by touching a certain button, Cuba could be freed. Is it not certain that a man (perhaps one in a hundred) would arise desperate enough to do it? He would probably reason, in his unbalanced mind, that the good to be gained for his country more than counterbalanced the evil of the act. The only argument against my view of the case is the difficulty of getting at the apparatus for firing the mine, and obstacles infinitely greater than this have been overcome again and again by conspirators; for instance, remember the explosion in the Winter Palace at St. Petersburg, where the space under the flooring of the dining-room was filled with explosives in the very abode of royalty and under the eyes of the royal guards.—Yours truly,

MAXWELL WILLIAMS.

CHICAGO, February 24, 1898.

[An army correspondent writes in a similar vein, as follows.—ED. NATION.]

"Should a torpedo have caused the ex-

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plosion, it was a *Cuban* (not Spanish) missile, aimed at the *Alfonso*, which miscarried. It is incredible that the Spanish authorities could either have used or connived at the use of a Government torpedo. That would precipitate what they wish to avert—foreign war, besides the practical treachery involved. No unofficial Spaniard could have access to a torpedo or could manipulate it, any more than he could a ten-inch mortar or any other piece of ordnance. And although doubtless there are many Spaniards, civil and military, in Havana who would not be sorry to have the *Maine* destroyed, its destruction in that way would be impracticable.

"On the other hand, we know that the insurgents have been freely supplied with arms and ammunition, including dynamite, from the United States. They have been skirmishing on land within sight of Havana—on previous occasions—and undoubtedly there are adherents of their cause in that neighborhood. Now, it is perfectly possible for the Junta to procure in the United States or England an auto-mobile torpedo, of which there are several varieties, and it is presumed that such could be launched from the shore or from a small boat without insuperable difficulty. To destroy a Spanish man-of-war in the harbor would be a great stroke, and, in the absence of a Cuban navy, would be easier than to do so at sea. Very well, if a torpedo was used, either the ship itself was mistaken in the dark—the two seem to have been lying about 200 yards apart—or, while passing through the water, the torpedo was accidentally deflected, and struck the *Maine*."

"THE EFFECT OF AMERICAN ON ENGLISH POLITICS."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In his interesting, but, in some respects, inconclusive, article on this subject in the *Nation* of January 20, "An Observer" appears to me to lay somewhat undue stress upon the influence exercised by the experiments in municipal government in the United States upon municipal politics in this country. No doubt the recent mayoral election in New York has been followed with great interest here, and it would be absurd to suppose that we could learn nothing from it that would be of use to us in the conduct of local government in our great cities. But on the other hand, it would be affectation to pretend that the success of the one-man system of local government in America, if it does prove a success, will lead to any serious modification of the essential character of our own municipal institutions.

Of course, they are not perfect, but they have at least stood the test of sixty years' trial—for the main principles of the municipal corporations act of 1835 are still in operation—and in that period they have achieved results which the municipal reformer of New York or Philadelphia would give much to obtain. For the most part our large towns are governed with economy and efficiency, and though jobbery is sure to occur here and there, there is certainly none of that licensed jobbery on a huge scale which obtains under the party system in America. Nor can it fairly be said, as "An Observer" rather implies, that the best men take no interest in municipal affairs. The contrary would rather seem to be the case. On the other hand, there is not much to attract the worst men, as there is in America. Our municipal servants, from the Town Clerk down to the policeman, hold their positions on a tenure practically as stable as that of the members of the civil service of the state. The number of offices at the disposal of a newly elected Mayor or Town Councillor in this effete country would move a high-toned Tammany politician to scorn.

Under the circumstances, it is hard to see why we should seek out "some honest man," and "give him extraordinary powers and a long tenure of office." I can imagine the amused surprise of a citizen of Liverpool or Birmingham on being told that responsibility could not be brought home to his Town Council, and that it would be much better to elect a dictator for a long period of years.

The case of London is no doubt different from that of other large cities of Great Britain. It is only of late years that an attempt has been made to treat the metropolis as a municipal whole, and to evolve unity out of the diverse local authorities which formerly shared—and indeed still do to a large extent share—in its government. The battle between centralization and "tenification" is not yet decided; but whatever be the result, there is small likelihood of the adoption of the American system.

The fact is, that the municipal institutions of Great Britain and of the United States cannot be treated as analogous, and the problems to which they give rise are entirely different in character. If it is true, as I have contended, that we are not likely to benefit much by copying any of the forms of American local government, on the other hand it is not probable that the adoption of our English forms would, under present circumstances at least, be of much value to the American municipality. For there would still remain the terrible iron-bound machines of Croker and Platt, and their kindred organizations, and the extraordinary doctrine of "the spoils" would still prevail. While America retains the spoils system and tolerates on her neck that Old Man of the Sea, the Boss, she can never enjoy any decent scheme of municipal government, whatever form of charter the State Legislature may adopt. The forces of human nature would be too strong for her. As Great Britain does not obey the spoils doctrine or writhe in the toils of a party system like that of the United States, it is clear that she is not subject to the same class of dangers either in municipal or in national politics.

No doubt it suits politicians like Lord Salisbury, to whom the London County Council is a perpetual bogy, to solemnly warn the electors that it may develop all the evils of Tammany Hall. But Lord Salisbury is not always careful to get up his brief, and he has here displayed an astonishing ignorance both of Tammany and of the London County Council, which his friends have ever since been busily trying to explain away. Possibly, however, he has managed to frighten a few people who have only a very vague knowledge of the real conditions of the American municipal problem. In a sense, this sort of thing can be described as an influence of American upon English politics; but who could take it seriously, or admit that it is likely to have such far-reaching consequences as "An Observer" seems to apprehend? G. C. M.

London, February 17, 1898.

THE RAWLINSON MSS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Having seen the gratifying notice of the catalogue of the Rawlinson MSS. in this library, which appeared in the *Nation* of the 11th of November last, but observing that the writer of that notice was aware of the existence of only two volumes, I think it will interest him, and I hope others of your readers, to be informed that two more volumes have appeared, comprising 1,516 MSS. of the same collection, designated under the letter D. The first of these volumes was published in 1893, and the second has just now been issued. They will be followed by a third volume containing an exhaustive index of persons, places, and things. Much relating to America will be found; and one manuscript of special interest is described under the number 1352, being the original autograph copy of John Eliot's 'Christian Commonwealth,' as sent by him to be printed in England.

W. D. Macray.

Bodleian Library, Oxford, February 15, 1898.

HARRIET SHELLEY'S LETTERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a notice of a recent volume of the 'Dictionary of National Biography,' in your number for December 30 last, you question the existence of a reprint in book form of the letters of Harriet Shelley to Catherine Nugent, originally printed in the *Nation*. Such a reprint, however, was issued in 1889, and a copy is now before me. I do not know the extent of the impression, but it must have been very limited.

I remain, dear sir, very truly yours,

R. Garnett.

British Museum, February 17, 1898.

Notes.

Mr. J. N. Larned, the well-known librarian of Buffalo, and author-editor of the 'History for Ready Reference and Topical Reading,' is to edit an annotated bibliography of American history, a work projected by Mr. George Iles of New York, and to be published by the American Library Association. About a thousand titles will be selected of books such as "readers in American history need most to have *valued* for them, either in commendation or warning," through notes appended to each title by way of appraisal ("with full knowledge, with sound judgment, with absolute sincerity"), and accompanied by the critic's signature. This is quite a practicable undertaking, as current treatment of new books would *not* be.

Thackeray has no biography, but he is to have a "Biographical Edition." This is the title finally chosen for the new and revised edition of his works, which is to be edited by Mrs. Richmond Ritchie, and is to be published in thirteen volumes. The order is to be chronological, each novel to be given in a single volume, and each volume to have its separate introduction. Many of Thackeray's letters, hitherto unpublished, are to be included, in addition to new drawings and sketches by him, facsimiles of his manuscript, and several portraits not before reproduced. Among the latter are those by Maclise, loaned for the purpose by the Garrick Club. The publishers of this notable edition are Smith, Elder & Co., London, and the Harpers of this city. The first volume is set down for appearance on April 15, and thereafter one volume a month is to be issued.

Charles Scribner's Sons' spring announcements embrace 'The Poetical and Prose Works of Lord Byron,' in twelve crown oc-

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tavo volumes, edited from a new text, with many fresh additions, by Ernest Hartley Coleridge and Rowland E. Prothero; a uniform nine-volume edition of 'Novels and Stories by "Q." (A. T. Quiller-Couch)'; 'Odes in Contribution to the Song of French History,' by George Meredith; 'Worldly Ways and Byways,' by Eliot Gregory (the *Evening Post's* papers of "An Idler"); 'Tales of the City Room,' by Miss Elizabeth C. Jordan; 'The Unquiet Sex,' magazine papers by Mrs. Helen Watterson Moody; 'Music: How It Came to be What it Is,' by Miss Hannah Smith; 'How to Name the Birds,' by H. E. Parkhurst; 'The Eugene Field I Knew,' by Francis Wilson; and 'Seven Months a Prisoner,' by J. V. Hadley, Judge of the Circuit Court of Indiana.

In the next few months we may expect from Little, Brown & Co., Boston, 'Memoirs of James Kent, LL.D.,' by his great-grandson, William Kent; a new edition, under the care of Prof. George H. Howison, of Soule's 'Dictionary of English Synonyms and Synonymous or Parallel Expressions'; a musical story, 'The Duenna of a Genius,' by Mrs. Frances Blundell; 'Hassan, a Fellah,' a Palestine romance, by Henry Gillman; and the D'Artagnan Edition of the romances of Alexandre Dumas, in fifty volumes, with thrice as many photogravure plates. In conjunction with Sampson Low & Co., they will publish also the following: 'All the World's Fighting Ships,' by F. C. Jane, illustrated, the second volume of William L. Clowes's 'History of the Royal Navy,' and a new edition of 'Ironclads in Action,' by H. W. Wilson, with a preface by Capt. Mahan.

Col. Higginson's 'Cheerful Yesterdays'; Dr. Griffis's 'The Pilgrims in their Three Homes—England, Holland, and America'; Mrs. Wiggins's 'Penelope's Progress,' a tour in Scotland; Henry B. Fuller's 'From the Other Side,' four stories of transatlantic travel; Bret Harte's 'Tales of Trail and Town'; Hopkinson Smith's 'Caleb West'; and 'The Children of the Future,' by Miss Nora Archibald Smith, are speedily forthcoming from Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Count Tolstoi's 'What Is Art?' will be issued immediately by T. Y. Crowell & Co., who will also make a book of Dean Farrar's 'Great Books,' now appearing in the *Independent*.

'Eastern Journeys' is the title of a book by the late Charles A. Dana, which is to be issued at once by D. Appleton & Co.

The Baker & Taylor Co. announce 'The Twentieth Century City,' by the Rev. Josiah Strong, D.D., and 'Life, Death and Immortality,' by William M. Bryant, LL.D.

Meyer Bros. & Co., No. 1132 Broadway, New York, will shortly bring out 'Pearl Necklace of Women's Thoughts,' translated from the French by Henri Pène du Bois.

The April issue of the *Portfolio* (Macmillan) will be 'The Later Work of Titian,' by Claude Phillips. The same house is bringing out 'The Genesis and Dissolution of the Faculty of Speech,' by Joseph Collins, M.D.; 'Four-Footed Americans,' by Mabel Osgood Wright, illustrated; 'Stories from the Classic Literature of Many Nations,' by Bertha Palmer; 'Tales of the Enchanted Islands of the Atlantic,' by Col. T. W. Higginson; and 'Topics on Greek and Roman History,' by A. L. Goodrich.

'Curiosities of Popular Customs,' as well as of "Rites, Ceremonies, Observances and Miscellaneous Antiquities," is the subject of an illustrated volume of over a thousand pages by William S. Walsh (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.). It is in great measure a compilation, the author mentioning eight different books which he has placed under contribution. The "staple" of the book is stated in the preface to be "the strange and out-of-the-way things usually left out of current works of reference"; but for some reason the fact is not mentioned that the author has mainly devoted his energies to customs, observances, and information connected with religion. In other words, the title of the book would imply a range of topics outside its actual limits. Of customs connected with saints' days, church-festivals, and holidays there is an abundance. The arrangement is alphabetical, but there is no conspectus of titles or analytic index.

The Queen's Jubilee is well past, but a dateless commemoration of it, 'Sixty Years a Queen,' by Sir Herbert Maxwell, Bart., M.P. (London: Harmsworth; New York: E. & J. B. Young & Co.), is mentionable at almost any time. In this handsome quarto the story of the reign is told agreeably and with fairmindedness, if not without bias such as belongs to an occasional production of this sort. About Chartism, Fenianism, the Sepoy rebellion, the China wars, the Crimean war, we do not expect to read the verdict of posterity. Material progress, literature, and science are taken account of, and the whole narrative is a useful popular survey of a memorable period. It ought, therefore, to have been furnished with an index. The illustrations are numerous and excellent, and are much enlivened by caricatures from the pencil of the Doyles, of Leech, Tenniel, and Du Maurier.

While the new National Library is being pictured and described, it is well that the great neighboring pile should be more than superficially repictured and redescribed, as is done in 'The National Capitol; Its Architecture, Art, and History,' by George C. Hazelton, jr. (New York). The work fulfils the promise of its title in a very satisfactory manner, with the aid of numerous illustrations. It is handsomely printed, and has a literary readableness as well as a permanent value for reference.

The 'New Astronomy for Beginners,' by Prof. D. P. Todd (American Book Company), will be found a very pleasing book for more than one class of students. Notwithstanding its professedly elementary character, it seems to contain all that the general non-scientific student at college could wish to learn of the subject. It is distinguished from all other books of the kind with which we are acquainted by the number and felicity of its illustrations. In some chapters, geometrical ideas are introduced which we fear students below the college grade will not find it easy to master; but these may be passed over without detriment to the usefulness of the other parts of the book.

The conscientious preparation of Mr. William C. Harris's 'Fishes of North America' has caused long delays in the appearance of the several parts. The "field work" (that is, the painting of portraits from live fish) had not been finished when the enterprise was started, but we are now assured that the series (numbering eighty) is at last virtually completed, so that the editor of the *American Angler* becomes free to devote himself to the text. Parts 11-14 bear monthly dates in 1896, but have been recently issued. They deal with the carps, the tarpon, the big-eyed herrings, the bonefish, etc., and have each two excellent lithographic copies of oil paintings of specimens not always related to the accompanying text, as, the common sunfish, horned pout, rock bass, sea bass, tautog, etc.

From Henry Frowde we have three more parts of Poole's 'Historical Atlas of Modern Europe from the Decline of the Roman Empire,' to which the editor contributes maps of the ecclesiastical organization of the Spanish peninsula, Europe in the time of Otto the Great (962), and Germany under the house of Hohenstaufen (1138-1254). Other maps are of Scotland (about 1600), by G. Gregory Smith; France in the thirteenth century, by W. E. Rhodes; the Eastern Roman Empire in the tenth century, by Prof. Bury; Western Asia under the Mohammedan Dynasties (970-1070), by S. Lane-Poole; and the house of Savoy in Italy, by Miss K. Dorothea Ewart.

The 'Correggio' in Knackfuss's "Künstler-Monographien" (Bielefeld: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Büchner) is by Henry Thode. Noticeable among the copious illustrations are the general views of the roof-paintings in San Paolo at Parma, showing the arrangement *in situ* of those lunettes and ovals so often reproduced separately in photographs and engravings.

The St. Louis Mercantile Library begins a modest series of Reference Lists in a useful way. The first number displays the Library's store of Missouri and Illinois newspapers, 1808-1897, in chronological arrangement, and adds an account of the manuscripts relating to Louisiana Territory and Missouri. This last is in line with the labors of the historical-manuscripts commission of the American Historical Association, whose valuable first report has just been issued.

The chief feature of the San Francisco Sierra Club's Bulletin for January is a translation of Dr. Filippo De Filippi's account of the Prince of Savoy's successful expedition last year to the summit of Mt. St. Elias, which spent forty days on a snowy footing. The article is accompanied by a chart of the route, views, and a portrait of the modest leader. Mr. John G. Lemmon continues his "Conifers of the Pacific Slope—How to Distinguish Them," with several illustrations.

Mr. F. G. Jackson's account of his three years' exploration in Franz-Josef Land is the prominent feature of the *Geographical Journal* for February. The main result of his adventurous journeys seems to have been the mapping of the southern part of the archipelago, and, it may be added, the conviction that it is "one of the worst" routes to the pole. A study of the geological collections brought back by the expedition appears to show that the islands are fragments of a vast basalt-plateau, probably the "grandest example of volcanism in the world." On account of the absence of warm southwesterly winds, the flora is "more scanty and stunted on the whole than that of almost all the other Arctic regions." There are certain plants, however, as poppies and four species of mosses—brilliant green, red, and golden yellow—which give color to the landscape. The only land mammalia are the bear and the fox, but three new species of birds were discovered. The northern lights were disappointing, though occasionally they were brilliant enough "to cast a shadow and to eclipse stars below the third magnitude." The highest register-

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ed temperature was 43 degrees Fahr.; the lowest, —54 degrees. The Journal also contains Dr. Mills's elaborate classification of geography with arbitrary symbols, presented at the Toronto meeting of the British Association.

The Scottish *Geographical Magazine* for February contains an interesting account of Somaliland by Mr. A. E. Pease, M. P. After a brief sketch of the recent history and political relations of that country, its native races, their appearance, customs and origin, he describes two very successful hunting expeditions made in 1896-97. He deprecates in emphatic terms the rumored agreement of Lord Salisbury's Government to relinquish a large part of the country to Abyssinia in return for its "good will in the Nile valley." It means simply the abandonment of the friendly Somalis, "who have till now delighted to call themselves British," to the exterminating or enslaving raids of their hereditary enemies.

The principal place in the Consular Reports for February is given to an apparently careful and painstaking account of coffee culture in Hawaii, by our Consul-General, Mr. William Haywood. Detailed information, in answer to numerous inquiries, is given in regard to labor, wages, the best methods of acquiring, clearing, and planting land, and the outlay required. The general impression is left that money can be made by an industrious person with from five to ten thousand dollars capital. But the industry is still so young that the estimates of the profits when the plantation has reached its full bearing stage (in seven years), range from 12 to 75 per cent. Appended is a list of the 222 coffee-growers in the islands, with the number of trees or area of each plantation. The Hawaiian sugar-crop for 1897 is estimated at 248,576 tons, or almost exactly the same as that of the previous season. The world's sugar production for 1897-98 is given by a German authority as 4,925,000 tons beet-sugar and 2,460,000 tons cane-sugar. The largest producers are Germany and Java respectively. There are several reports from China, the most interesting and valuable, perhaps, being that upon the kind of labels and trade-marks which are popular with the Chinese.

George L. Pilkington, a lay missionary recently killed by the Sudanese rebels in Uganda, was a remarkable linguist. Graduating from Cambridge, England, in 1888, with a first-class in the Classical Tripos, he went to Africa in 1890. During the journey from the coast he learned the language from the carriers so rapidly that within three months after his arrival at his post he had prepared a Luganda Handbook and Vocabulary, "the first accurate one ever published." By the middle of the next year he had translated the Psalms and the New Testament, with the exception of the Gospels, and in four years more the whole of the Old Testament, a few of the Minor Prophets excepted, together with seventy-two hymns, two catechisms, a devotional book, and a history. Another side of him is shown in an extract from a journal of a fellow-missionary published in the *Church Missionary Intelligencer* for February: "Archdeacon Walker has got a football out from England, and Pilkington has been diligently coaching the boys. It is very comic to see him, as he enters with great earnestness into it. . . . I, with my boys and about ten others, stood Pilkington and another lot. We got two goals each." He was only thirty-three when he was killed, and was probably the best-known white man in Uganda and most beloved by the natives; and in his death, to quote from the obituary notice in the London *Times*, "the cause of civilization in Africa has received a severe blow."

It gives us pleasure to record that the broader view has prevailed among the alumni of Harvard College, and that, by a majority of more than 12 per cent. in a total vote (by circular ballot) of some 3,100, they propose to extend the suffrage for Overseers "to all graduates of five years' standing from any department of the University."

We have received the first circular of the Baltimore Association for the Promotion of the University Education of Women, inviting applications for a foreign fellowship, of $500, for the scholastic year 1897-'99. In the award of this fellowship, preference is to be given to college graduates who are either Maryland women or women who have identified themselves with educational interests in Baltimore. The requirements set by the Baltimore Association for its first fellow are those hitherto specified for the fellowships awarded by the Association of Collegiate Alumnæ. Candidates, "preferably graduates of not more than five years' standing," should file their applications in writing, by March 20, with any member of the committee on award: Mrs. Christine Ladd Franklin, No. 1507 Park Avenue; Dr. Mary Sherwood, "The Arundel"; Dr. Lilian Welsh, the Woman's College. While no competitive examination will be held, the committee propose to select from among the qualified candidates that one who, in their judgment, through original gifts, previous training, energy, power of endurance, and health, is best fitted "to attain distinction in her selected line of work." The required evidence of such ability and promise includes her college diploma, testimonials from professors and other competent judges, the very important qualification of thoroughly good health, a statement of the work in which she proposes to engage, and *"last, and of chief importance,* examples of her scientific or literary work, in the form of papers or articles, or accounts of scientific investigations which she has carried on."

An obvious though not quite self-correcting error occurred in our issue last week in the title of Prof. MacDonald's 'Select Documents Illustrative of the History of the United States.' The period covered is 1776-1861.

—The promotion of interest in local chronicles, antiquities, and folk-lore is a branch of business all over the world, and if the State of New York is not very rich in material, zeal in the use of what exists is the more noticeable. The 'Chronicles of Tarrytown and Sleepy Hollow,' by Edgar Mayhew Bacon (G. P. Putnam's Sons), come from a bit of New York immortalized by Irving; but Mr. Bacon has contrived to add a good deal not to be found in his writings. The book is a small one, but is fully illustrated, and contains an interesting plate of André's capture, from a print in the possession of Dr. Coutant, and a map of the Sleepy Hollow country, showing the old Manor-House, or "Flypse's Castle," the mill, the Dutch church of Sleepy Hollow (we are glad to see that an effort is being made to repair and preserve it), and some other landmarks. There is little left, and the days of the Van Cortlandts and Bayards and Phillipses are long gone, and on certain portions of the map appear the new names of the patroons of our days, the Goulds and Rockefellers, whose villas overshadow the little antiquities of the sleepy old Dutch hills and valleys, with the garish splendor of a very modern day. Time softens all things, and perhaps in their day Vredryk Flypse and his "set" were not altogether patterns of all the virtues. The author notices the scandalous stories about Captain Kyd, who, if he was really "squared" by some of the earlier Tarrytown magnates, apparently dealt with them honorably, just as the land-pirates who have succeeded him do with rich people now, if properly approached. Another little volume of the same sort, piously published by the same firm, is 'Reminiscences of an Old Westchester Homestead,' by Charles Pryer. This consists mainly of local ghost stories of a very primitive kind, such as may be found wherever dulness is.

—Notes of a journey made through Nicaragua in 1895 by Henry I. Sheldon have been put together in a volume called 'Notes on the Nicaragua Canal' (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.). We cannot make out that the author shows any special authority to speak about the canal, but he makes very sweeping statements as to the political questions likely to be raised by its construction. Thus, he says (p. 178) that should we construct the canal, directly or indirectly, "we could not share its control with any European Power," and that "it will be impossible for Great Britain to maintain the provisions of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty." But why? The only reason given is that we have tried to get England to accede to a modification or abrogation of the treaty, and have failed. Of itself this proves nothing, except that England stands by and insists on non-exclusive control under the treaty; the real question is whether we can show any reason why England ought to recede. If not, she probably never will, and the only remaining question would be, Should we compel her by force? The book seems to be intended to advance the building of the canal, but we can imagine nothing less likely to do this than publications which assume that the canal, as soon as built, will be a *casus belli* between the United States and England. Mr. Sheldon is here an imitator of the voluble Keasbey, whose idea of a canal is that of a sort of *mare clausum*, which we can forbid anybody entering, and hold against the world in arms. This would no doubt be magnificent, but it would not be a canal. On the engineering questions involved, which are really the only ones of any present consequence, Mr. Sheldon does not undertake to decide. The two things that he seems to think he really makes clear are, first, that the canal will be sure to pay at once, and, second, that we must never let any one help us to keep it open.

—A small illustrated pamphlet, 'On Portraits of Christ in the British Museum,' by Cecil Torr, M.A. (London: C. J. Clay & Sons), is in form and title a description of the portraits in question, but in reality is a discussion of the chronology of Christ's life. The fact that Jesus is represented in certain third or fourth-century portrait-busts as a beardless youth, while in works of later date he always figures as a bearded man, taken in connection with the further fact that, in a number of early pictures of the baptism, Jesus appears as a mere boy, while John is represented as a man of mature years, suggests to the author of the pamphlet the question whether we must not re-

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vise the accepted chronology of Christ's life and conclude that he began his public ministry when a mere boy and was still a youth at the time of his crucifixion. A new investigation of the familiar data supplied by the Gospels and Josephus leads Mr. Torr to answer this question in the affirmative, and to put the birth of Christ in 6 or 7 A. D., when Quirinius, who is mentioned in Luke ii., 1, is known to have taken a census. Jesus is then supposed to have begun his ministry at the age of sixteen or seventeen, and to have been crucified when not more than twenty years old. It is suggested by Mr. Torr that the mistake in the commonly accepted chronology arose from a confusion of Jesus with John the Baptist, by which the latter's birth-date was assigned to the former. This radical revision of the traditional chronology of Christ's life, interesting as it is, rests upon too precarious a foundation to command any wide assent among scholars. The portraits which are regarded as so suggestive are much too late to be of any real historical significance, and the difficulties in our written sources are not in any way lessened—they are, in fact, greatly increased—by the change of date.

—The tenth annual report of the Society for the Diffusion of Christian and General Knowledge among the Chinese for the year ending October 31, 1897, shows a surprising expansion of work since the Chino-Japanese war. Largely supported by Scottish and other merchants in China, including natives, the society aims to pierce the dense ignorance of the masses by means of popular publications, in the vernacular, of science and unsectarian religion. Since November 1, 1896, a total of 199,200 copies of books containing 12,147,900 double pages or leaves has been issued. The works most numerously sold, at a cost barely above that of printing, have been Dr. Y. J. Allen's thoroughly trustworthy 'History of the War' (of 1894-'95), Ries's 'Education of Mankind,' Mackenzie's 'History of Civilization,' T. Richard's 'Reform,' Allen's 'Value of Truth to the Individual and National Character,' and 'What has the English Government Done for India? A Mirror for China,' 'Outlines of the History of Thirty-one Nations,' and 'The Aims of Protestant Missions in China.' The past year has been the most successful known to the Society, the sales yielding $12,146.91 as compared with $817.97 in 1893. Chinese publishers who have pirated the Society's publications have been restrained from and fined for reprinting these books, because the natives who print "for revenue only" leave out the criticism of bad customs and much else that does not please them. Dr. Y. J. Allen, editor of the monthly *Review of the Times*, which circulates 3,300 copies, is the chief author on the list. Recently offered the headship of a university by Sheng, the General Director of Railways in China, Dr. Allen declined, but instead prepared by request a code of rules and regulations for a national system of modern education. The chief places of gratuitous distribution of ethical and intellectual publications are the examination halls, in which 24,000 students assemble, as, for example, at Nanking. Those at Changsha, in the anti-foreign province of Hunan, were, during the last September examinations, lighted by electricity. The centres of distribution and sale are a dozen, from Mukden to Yunnan.

WINSOR'S WESTWARD MOVEMENT.

The Westward Movement: The Colonies and the Republic West of the Alleghenies, 1763-1798. With full cartographical illustrations from contemporary sources. By Justin Winsor. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1897.

The name of Justin Winsor is indelibly associated with American historical literature. As editor of 'The Narrative and Critical History of America,' and as author of important works on geographical discovery on this continent, he displayed a rare knowledge of sources and a critical appreciation of their worth. As a cartographer he was easily first among American scholars, and his attainments in this field lend to his works a peculiar value. The present volume arouses the melancholy interest which always attaches to the last work of a great scholar's life. Not only is it Dr. Winsor's final contribution to scholarship, but it concludes the story begun in 'Cartier to Frontenac' and continued in 'The Mississippi Basin.' The three volumes together form a continuous history of geographic discovery and exploration in America, together with some account of the political arrangements by which the region east of the Mississippi was disposed of.

The westward movement of the Americans on the seaboard encountered four powerful antagonists—the Indians, the English, the French, and the Spanish. The first were the aboriginal possessors of the land, and were unwilling to retreat constantly to the West without making a determined resistance. The second antagonist had two objects in view in dealing with the colonists—to keep them within reach of the trade of the mother country and to hold them in due subjection. France, by giving Canada and the region north of the Ohio to England, would establish a constant menace between the colonies and the mother country, while by confining the young republic to the Atlantic slope, she would propitiate Spain, whose interests demanded that no rival Power should be allowed to approach the Mississippi. The history of the westward movement is the history of the contests with these four antagonists and their final vanquishment.

The story of the long contest with the Indians is taken up at the treaty of Fort Stanwix (1768), where the famous Property Line, a futile attempt to prevent settlers from encroaching on the lands of the Indians, was drawn. The forces which lay back of the westward movement were far too strong to be held in check by such an arrangement, and the terms of the treaty were laxly observed. Settlers continued to pour over the mountains and down the Ohio, and they showed little regard for treaty stipulations. Congress, however, recognized the obligation of the treaty, and induced the Indians in a second treaty of Fort Stanwix (1784) to relinquish the Ohio as their boundary, and to retire toward the Northwest. After the organization of the Northwest Teritory, much of the time of Governor St. Clair was spent in efforts to quiet the Indian title. Throughout these difficult negotiations, the action of the Confederation was hampered by the attempts of the individual States to make separate treaties with the Indians. Furthermore, it was found to be impossible to induce all the tribes concerned to yield their assent to the treaties proposed, and in these cases the question of title had ultimately to be settled by force.

In their efforts to prevent the spread of American settlements, the Indians were ably assisted by England. It was her object to secure the control of the vast region between the Appalachians and the Mississippi, and to this end the royal proclamation of 1763 forbade the granting of lands or the making of settlements beyond the sources of the rivers flowing to the Atlantic. With the same purpose in view the Quebec Act of 1774 annexed the region in question to Canada. This measure was peculiarly gratifying to France, for it was a recognition of her ancient claim that this territory belonged to Canada; and should the fortunes of war or diplomacy ever enable her to regain her lost possessions in America, she would then take advantage of England's acknowledgment of her contention. Before the news of the passage of the Quebec Act reached America, the Dunmore war began, and the outbreak of the Revolution in the following year diverted men's attention to other subjects.

Some of the most important results of the Revolution were due to battles fought in the West. The campaigns of General George Rogers Clark, beginning in 1778, overthrew British authority in the Northwest and compelled the British to assume the defensive from the Ohio to the Great Lakes. But the defeat of the British troops and the capture of many of the most important British posts were not the only results of Clark's victories. The terror of his name detached from England many of her Indian allies. How far this detracted from the British strength may be seen in the fact that Haldimand attributed it to the capriciousness of the Indians that Clark was not expelled from the Northwest. The fruits of Clark's campaigns were gathered when the treaty of peace was made. It may be questioned whether Winsor does not undervalue the importance of the conquest. Clark did more than make "it easier for the American Commissioners, who negotiated the treaty of 1782, to include this ample domain within the American Union." It would not be far wrong to say that he made it possible, for without his victories the claims of the United States to the Northwest would have had a very meagre basis.

In his chapters dealing with the relation of France and Spain to the Revolution, Winsor exposes with admirable clearness the purely selfish motives which led to the intervention of France. Anything that would weaken England was sure of the support of Vergennes. In like manner Spain saw that the safety of Louisiana required that England and her dependencies should be kept back from the Mississippi. This it was which induced Grimaldi to advise his royal master to contribute a million dollars to the cause of the Americans. The contribution was not made, but, prior to the outbreak of the war between Spain and England in 1779, the Spanish Governor of New Orleans maintained a most friendly disposition toward the Americans, supplying them in 1776 with 12,000 pounds of powder and rendering other valuable assistance. But in the settlement of the boundary question at the final peace, the United States had no reason to be grateful to either of its quondam allies. Both France and Spain desired to confine the new republic to the Atlantic slope. That satisfactory boundaries were finally secured was largely due to England, who, doubtless, was

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equally actuated by purely selfish motives. She had to choose whom she would have as neighbor on the Canadian border, and she found a kindred race less objectionable than aliens under Bourbon dominion. The importance of these territorial arrangements was clearly seen at the time. Luzerne wrote to Vergennes: "The Americans, in pushing their possessions as far as the Lake of the Woods, are preparing for their remote posterity a communication with the Pacific." The consummation of this prophecy was less remote than its author thought.

The conclusion of the treaty of peace and the recognition of the independence of the United States did not terminate the territorial difficulties of the new government. Efforts were still made to prevent it from taking possession of the domain awarded it. England, on the side of Canada, and Spain, on the side of Louisiana, endeavored to retain for a time part of what they had lost. The action of both countries was involved in a maze of intrigues with the Kentuckians and other Western Americans—intrigues which were made possible by the seeming indifference of the national Government to the commercial and political interests of the West. On the ground of the action of the States with regard to the loyalists, and also as security for the payment of the British debts, the British ministry refused to relinquish the Western posts. It was not until the negotiation in 1794 of the much-abused Jay treaty that the question was settled. At the same time, Spain persisted in retaining the eastern bank of the Mississippi south of the Yazoo, and plotted to establish a Spanish protectorate south of the Ohio. The disaffection among the people of the West gave the Spanish considerable hope of success, and it was not until the negotiation of the treaty of San Lorenzo in 1795 that the danger was averted. For three years longer, however, the Spanish held military posts in American territory. At last, in 1798, the posts were evacuated, and the United States came into possession of the territory awarded it by the treaty of 1783.

The weakest parts of Mr. Winsor's work are those dealing with the development of political institutions in the West. Not only is the treatment of the subject very brief, but the interpretation placed upon political measures in many instances cannot be accepted. An example of this is in connection with the Ordinance of 1787. The fulsome praise meted out to this measure for so many years seems to have led to a reaction in Winsor's mind, and to have made him place a lower estimate upon its influence in shaping the history of the West. It may be true, as he says, that the Ordinance was made up of glittering generalities akin to the declaration that all men are born free and equal—a phrase which was thought in Virginia to have nothing to do with slavery, while in Massachusetts it was held to abolish slavery. It may be true, also, that the Ordinance contained nothing new, and that many of its provisions were never enforced. Granting all this, the history of the time would not warrant the following conclusion:

"So the Ordinance of 1787 introduces us to nothing new in human progress. There was doubtless that in it which proved a guiding star for future legislation, as in the struggle over the slavery question in Illinois; but it may well be questioned if later enactments, without such a beacon, and keeping in sight the interests of the community as they arose, would not have made of the Northwest all that it has become. The provisions of this fundamental law were operative just so far as the public interests demanded, and no farther, and the public interests would have had their legitimate triumph unaided by it. The Ordinance simply shared this condition with all laws in communities which are self-respecting and free."

The history of the slavery controversy in Indiana, where the people repeatedly sought to obtain the abrogation of the sixth article of the Ordinance, is a sufficient refutation of this conclusion. In this instance, at least, the Ordinance was more than a beacon-light. It was a positive restraint, without which slavery would undoubtedly have been admitted to Indiana.

The literary workmanship of the volume cannot be commended. At its best, Winsor's style is cumbrous, and it is often obscure. But a more serious defect of the work is the entire absence of bibliographical data. Aside from the notes to the maps, there are no references whatever to the sources. This is more than a defect; it is a serious loss to scholarship, for no one had a more extensive or a more accurate knowledge of the sources and authorities of this period of Western history than had Winsor.

TYLER'S LITERARY HISTORY OF THE REVOLUTION.

The Literary History of the American Revolution. 1763-1783. By Moses Coit Tyler. Volume II. 1776-1783. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1897.

The second volume of Prof. Tyler's scholarly and readable study fully bears out the promise that the earlier volume gave; and while there is obviously far less ease in the classifying and treatment of the more heterogeneous bookmaking of the period from 1776 to 1783, the author has nevertheless grouped his material in such a way as to produce a most satisfactory result. Prof. Tyler notes that, with the actual passage of the Declaration of Independence, argument ceased, and the publications on both sides became tinctured with the elements of derision and hate. Perhaps no better proof could be found that the cleavage had ceased to be partisan, and had become national; but for this very reason the products of the press become far less interesting from the literary point of view, and it is easy to see that the author has found his material neither as important nor as usable as in the earlier controversial period.

The more we dwell on his deliberate omission of the state paper, which we are forced to confess is correct if we are to treat literature in its narrowest sense of belles-lettres, the more we regret it, not only because the state paper played an essential part in our Revolution, but because in it is to be found the expression of the greatest intellectual ability then extant in this country. When a people of very limited education are engaged in fighting an unequal contest, and at the same moment are rebuilding their governments, they have too much work on hand to devote any of the mental power of the country to the production of belles-lettres; and if only the latter range of literature is considered, it is obvious that a very great injustice is done to them. Just as, later, the slavery issue for thirty years absorbed the minds of the ablest thinkers and writers in our country, to the injury and almost disregard of pure literature, so, during the Revolution, the strongest minds were pondering how man was to devise a government that should maintain an equilibrium between anarchy and tyranny, and which should be strong enough to check men in wrongdoing and weak enough to check them in nothing good. Yet one may search Prof. Tyler's two volumes in vain for any consideration of the Bills of Rights and Constitutions then framed, although into them was put the best intellectual vigor of the men who built a nation. The Constitution of Pennsylvania, framed by Franklin, Rittenhouse, and others, which represents the extreme swing towards a pure democracy, and that of New York, framed by conservatives like Jay, Gouverneur Morris, and R. R. Livingston, which represents the doubts of the outcome of self-government, are as important and illuminative as any of the addresses of the First Congress, if not as the Declaration of Independence itself. Not merely has the author passed over these exponents of the thought of the time, but also over the controversial literature they produced. John Adams's 'Thoughts on Government,' Braxton's 'Address,' Rush's 'Four Letters,' Parson's 'Essex Results,' Dickinson's 'Essay of a Frame of Government,' and the equally vital outlines of government drafted by R. H. Lee, Jefferson, Madison, and others, are either barely alluded to or are not mentioned at all.

So, too, most of the other political controversies of the Revolution are neglected. There are admirable surveys of much of the work of Samuel Adams, William Livingston, Thomas Paine, and Franklin, but the important newspaper or pamphlet writing, after the Revolution was fairly started, of Hamilton, Duane, Rush, the Lees, Wharton, W. H. Drayton, Gouverneur Morris, and others is passed over without reference. Even the last-named writer's very important 'Observations on the American Revolution,' which he prepared for the Continental Congress, is neglected. The whole literature of the controversy over the disposition of the Western lands, in which lay the germ of America's future greatness, and which marked such a radical departure from all previous systems, is unnoticed; and the pamphlet war over paper money is equally slighted, though in the essays of Franklin, Hamilton, Morris, Pelatiah Webster, Tench Francis, Paine, and Barton are to be found the true beginnings of American political economy, as well as sound views on questions which have been constantly recurrent in our history.

The greatest difficulty, however, that the author was forced to encounter was in his study of the literature of the South, and we wish he might have applied some of his capacity for research, which is indicated in so many parts of the present work, to this hitherto neglected section of our literature. One would suppose, from what is found in the books that have already appeared, that there was no literature south of Virginia in pre-Revolutionary and Revolutionary days. Prof. Tyler gives us more or less information concerning some of the writings of Drayton, Zubly, and Laurens, but even these accounts are seriously defective. Thus, Laurens's first publication, a pamphlet on American custom-houses (1768), and the able answer of Egerton Leigh, Chief Justice of the Colony, are not cited; and the same fate is accorded to the anonymous 'Considerations of Certain Political Transactions of the

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Province of South Carolina' (1774), with Leigh's 'An Answer' to the same pamphlet. Equally unnoticed, too, are the pamphlet of 'A Back Settler' (Charleston, 1774), the reply to the same, entitled 'A Comment . . . By a Gentleman of South Carolina,' William Tennant's 'Address' (1774), his 'Speech' three years later, and all his sermons. At a later period, too, come the very popular pamphlets of Ædanus Burke; and his tirade against the Society of the Cincinnati calls attention to Prof. Tyler's omission to refer to the controversy over that society, which falls properly within the Revolutionary period. In lighter vein are the 'Story of Æneas and Dido, Burlesqued by a Gentleman of South Carolina,' and the 'Poems of Arouet,' the latter published in Charleston in 1786, and perhaps not within the Revolutionary period, as the author, in the preface, speaks of his own extreme youth as an excuse for the quality of his verse. And, presumably, careful research would discover a number of other works of which these are but examples. So, in North Carolina, no mention is made of Maurice Moore's tract, entitled 'Justice and Policy of Taxing the American Colonies of Great Britain Considered' (1766); bare allusion is made to the literature of the "Regulator" war, while Iredell's 'Principles of an American Whig' and later writings have escaped the author's attention. Nor is the account of Virginian literature as complete as it might have been made. Jefferson's 'Notes on Virginia,' which comes within the period, and which is the most famous book produced south of Mason and Dixon's line, as well as a most remarkable piece of work, is not so much as named. The writings of James McClurg, Peyton and Edmund Randolph, Robert Carter Nicholas, Landon Carter, James Camm, and the Lee family are either entirely omitted or are inadequately touched upon.

These are the chief defects, but many merits more than offset them, and make Prof. Tyler's work by far the most complete, as well as the most critical, of all résumés of our Revolutionary writings. Analysis of the works is accompanied by a bibliography of authorities, most valuable to all students, which fills over fifty pages, though printed in small type. This is the most important catalogue of books on the subject yet compiled, and, taken in connection with the late Justin Winsor's 'Reader's Hand-book of the American Revolution,' goes far towards perfecting a complete bibliography of our war for independence. There is, finally, a good index, made by Dr. Federspiel.

On certain points as to which Prof. Tyler's data have been insufficient, it is possible to supplement them. Thomas Hutchinson's pamphlet on paper money was entitled 'A Projection for Regulating the Value of Gold and Silver Coins,' printed in 1762. Brackenridge's 'Modern Chivalry,' one of the most popular books for thirty years in this country, was printed in four volumes between 1793 and 1797 at Philadelphia and Pittsburgh, and was four times reissued in abridged form between that date and 1819; in the latter year an entirely revised edition was printed in two volumes, and of this an abridgment was several times reprinted, the copy Prof. Tyler notes being an example. The pamphlet mentioned as "the celebrated speech of the celebrated Commoner," but without clue of authorship, was the speech of Lord Chatham. That entitled 'Detail and Conduct of the American War' was a compilation by Joseph Galloway.

There are also a few typographical errors to which the author will be glad to have his attention called. Thus, "The New York *Gazette*" is quoted a number of times, though "The Royal *Gazette*" is the correct title. Forrest's play of "The Disappointment" becomes, by a blunder of the printer, "The Disenchantment"; and another obvious error, into which the author has been led by a piece of vanity of the Rev. William Smith, is the quotation of Junius in connection with Smith's sermon of 1775. Junius wrote nothing under his name after 1771, and we presume Smith was alluding to Junius Americanus, if, indeed, he was not fabricating his quotation out of whole cloth, for he is by no means a writer who can be taken on faith. Allusion is made to Dickinson's "publishing" a speech to the New Jersey convention, though the only form in which it is known is an abstract of it taken by an enemy for transmission to the British Government. James Harrington, at p. 475, is a palpable misprint for James Rivington.

The Life of Charles Jared Ingersoll. By William M. Meigs. J. B. Lippincott Co. 1897.

Charles Jared Ingersoll was born in Philadelphia, October 3, 1782. His father, Jared Ingersoll, had been a delegate to the Continental Congress in 1780-'81, a member of the Constitutional Convention, and Federalist candidate for Vice-President in 1812, besides holding, from 1791 to 1800, and 1811 to 1816, the office of Attorney-General of Pennsylvania. Charles was brought up in an atmosphere of politics and law; but a short tour in Europe, made shortly after his admission to the bar, in 1802, gave him a certain fondness for France which tended to weaken the force of his Federalist training. A pamphlet entitled 'A View of the Rights and Wrongs, Power and Policy, of the United States of America,' published in 1808, and 'Inchiquin the Jesuit's Letters,' in 1811, took, in general, the anti-English view then prevalent among the Republicans. In 1812 he was elected to Congress as a Republican. He was at that time thirty years old, and "was so youthful in appearance," says Mr. Meigs, "that the doorkeeper of Congress at first declined to admit him, thinking it impossible that so young a person could be a member" (p. 67). His early prominence is shown in the fact that he was made chairman of the committee on the judiciary and a member of that on foreign relations. His sympathies made him an enthusiastic supporter of the war; in his first formal speech, however, he showed his independence by sharply criticising the Administration for accepting the Russian offer of mediation, and, later, did not hesitate to attack Webster for the covert suggestions of disunion in the latter's speech on the militia bill. He failed to secure a reëlection, and went back to Philadelphia "to be," as he wrote, "a mere lawyer . . . for the next fifteen years."

At the close of his term Ingersoll was appointed United States District Attorney, to succeed Dallas, who had become Secretary of the Treasury. This office he held for more than fourteen years. His practice was large and important, and he, moreover, kept up an active correspondence with Rush, Dallas, Madison, Monroe, and King. A diary which he kept for Rush's entertainment, during a visit to Washington in the early part of 1823, gives a racy account of social life in the capital at that period. It is evident, however, that Ingersoll had no intention of permanently renouncing politics, and that a political situation consonant with his views would see him again a candidate. In the meantime he entered, as occasion offered, into the political activities of Pennsylvania, served a term in the Assembly in 1830-'31, and was a prominent member of the Harrisburg convention in 1827.

In 1841 he was again elected to Congress. An early friend of Biddle and the Bank, he had become an opponent of the Bank after Jackson's veto of the bill for a recharter; and he had been from the first an admirer of Jackson, and had supported Van Buren. In Congress Ingersoll's position was one of prominence. He favored the annexation of Texas, and did not fear the Mexican war; voted for increased tariff duties, though with the warning that "there must be severe competition, or there will be no durable success"; defended Tyler's vetoes and welcomed the break-up of the Whig party, without becoming a Tyler man; opposed the multiplication of foreign missions; and supported the revived Sub-Treasury plan in 1846. His opposition to Webster, which had several times appeared in outspoken criticism of the latter's course in the boundary negotiations with Great Britain and in the *Caroline* affair, culminated in formal charges of financial crookedness in the administration of the Department of State. The investigation which followed resulted in a report exonerating Webster. Ingersoll retired from Congress and from active life in 1849, and devoted himself mainly to literary work until his death, in 1862.

Ingersoll's place in politics was not the usual one. That his prominence was far greater than his influence can hardly be questioned. He was not a skilful politician, in the narrow sense of the term, nor a good parliamentarian. His learning, his fame as a lawyer, his unusual oratorical powers, and his evident sincerity won for him respect and a measure of admiration; but his outspoken and often vehement independence stamped him as a man not to be relied upon in party exigencies, and lost him the assured confidence of his natural political friends. The same gifts that adapted him for war unfitted him, to a large extent, for council. Nor was his independence the result of unusual keenness of vision, as with those who see from afar the inevitable trend of things; it suggested, rather, the political free lance, too brilliant to be generally accepted as safe. Undoubtedly his position was sometimes an unfortunate and a galling one, as in the Constitutional Convention in Pennsylvania, in 1837, where partisan control thwarted his cherished schemes, and again in Congress, where a favorable report in favor of the annexation of Texas was made impossible by the opposition in his own committee. These, to be sure, are the accidents of a long and useful career, but they are not so much out of harmony with the general course of Ingersoll's political life, after all.

One cannot help thinking, also, that, while Ingersoll was no narrow partisan, his view of politics was more the result of personal impressions and fortuitous circumstances than of hard thinking and profound moral conviction. His attitude towards slavery and the abolition movement is, perhaps, the best illustration of this. Himself no friend

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to slavery, he nevertheless looked upon it as embedded in the compromises of the Constitution, and entitled to protection so long as the constitutional guarantees remained unchanged; and he deprecated the persistent agitation of the subject, as tending not only to strengthen the hold of slavery upon the South, but also to cultivate a dangerous spirit of disunion. In the abolition movement he saw an opportunity for unscrupulous politicians, and seems to have convinced himself that, however disinterested the motives and acts of its early advocates may have been, in its later days it had been taken possession of by a faction, and used for selfish and disloyal ends. That the abolitionists had sympathizers in England was, from his standpoint, but one more reason for condemning them. Mr. Meigs is at pains to make clear Ingersoll's position on this whole matter, and does not hesitate to show his own general accord therewith. For the moderation and good temper with which he has stated his case, we have nothing but commendation; and, while we are unable to agree with him, it is because of a conviction that, in the troublous times of the anti-slavery struggle, the leaders of the South erred more and more against the light. That Ingersoll may fairly be awarded a lesser measure of condemnation than many others is owing, as we have already said, to his apparent failure to probe anywhere into the moral foundations of his political creed; but this makes his position only less negative, not more positive.

We have but to add a word of general commendation of Mr. Meigs's book. He has evidently bestowed much labor upon it, and has had to contend with no small difficulties in obtaining his material; but the result is a valuable addition to American political biography.

Tourguéneff and his French Circle. Edited by E. Halperine-Kaminsky. Translated by Ethel M. Arnold. Henry Holt & Co. 1898. 8vo, pp. 302.

This volume is made up of so-called "letters" from Turgeneff to his Parisian friends. Some of those to Flaubert and the few to George Sand have a personal interest, but most of the others are of a very trivial character, mere notes (often somewhat unintelligible) of friendship and of business, or making social appointments and regretting social disappointments, and bemoaning the sufferings and the consequences of his frequent attacks of gout. They have no literary value, but give proof of those qualities of affectionateness, of active good-will showing itself in kind deeds, and of generous admiration which the reader who has any familiarity with "le bon géant" is already aware he possessed.

One of the few passages that add anything to our knowledge of Turgeneff is the following (p. 117):

"You are not fond of walking, but you must force yourself to do it. I was once in prison (in solitary confinement) for more than a month. My room was a small one, and the heat was intense. Twice a day I carried 104 cards (two packs) one by one, from one end of the room to the other. That made 208 turns—416 in the day; each turn took eight steps, which made it come to more than 3,300, nearly two kilometres! Let this ingenious calculation encourage you!"

The remarks of the editor do not increase the value of the book, and it is put together so hastily that he contradicts on p. 260 what he has asserted on p. 11; and in a list of fourteen names Cladel is given as Fladel, Bergerat as Bergeras, Hérédia as Hérédia, Céard as Séard, Gustave Toudouze as Gaston Toulouse, while George Sand is persistently spoken of as Georges Sand.

The "lady-translator" does not show much knowledge either of the French or of the English language. She makes Maupassant speak of Turgeneff as "a still greater man than Flaubert," when he only described him as a *taller* man. Having by chance the same sentence (about Maupassant) to translate on p. 99 and on p. 242, she renders it first, "He is still a dear fellow," and afterwards, "He is as nice as ever," leaving the reader wondering what third translation might be the true one. She avows that she translates the frequent "Je vous embrasse" by "I send you my love," or "Much love to you," or whatever feminine-like variation she can devise. In attempting to reproduce the easy familiarity of her original she has adopted a youthful vocabulary, and the pages are sprinkled with the words "nice," "splendid," "real bad," "fearfully," "tremendously," "high-falutin," "flustered," and such phrases as "Don't you think?" "I expect you did," "Look here!" "That's his look-out," "dear old boy," "sleepy old pear," "beautiful mess," "fine old row," "lots of talk," "that suits me down to the ground." One cannot feel that this would have suited down to the ground Turgeneff's fastidiousness. A different objection, but a real one, may be expressed at the use, in a translation, of such essentially English terms as "slough of despond" and "bowdlerized."

The book is without table of contents, index, or headlines, which makes it very difficult of reference.

American Book Clubs; Their Beginnings and History, and a Bibliography of their Publications. By A. Growoll. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1897.

Among some of the rarest and most beautiful productions of the American press are the issues of book-clubs composed of a very limited membership, and printing (but not publishing) an edition sufficient only to supply their own members with one or two copies. So small have been these editions, and so hidden in private libraries, that the collector is at a loss to discover what has been thus given out—a knowledge that would in part compensate for his inability to secure the book. Occasionally, they may be found in the auction room, rarely in full sets, and are eagerly purchased at prices that are really fancy, by no means indicating the intrinsic value of the volumes, but fully proving their rarity. The collector need no longer be ignorant of what book-clubs exist or have existed in the United States, for Mr. Growoll has laboriously compiled a list of them and their issues, with historical sketches of their activity. Such clubs have properly existed only since 1854, and their formation naturally coincides with the eras of prosperity. Eleven clubs were instituted between 1860 and 1869, compared with four in the previous decade, and one in the succeeding ten years. Between 1880 and 1889, seven clubs are recorded, and since 1890 another seven have come into being.

It is not without interest to note that of the clubs established before 1880 only two have survived—the Prince Society of Boston and the Historical Printing Club of Brooklyn, each of which issued a volume in 1897. All the others endured for a few years, printed matter of more or less value, and passed out of existence. Nor is the reason far to seek. They owed their origin to one or more active minds—as a rule, book collectors or book lovers or printers—who had a true interest in the undertaking, and succeeded for a time in inspiring others with their enthusiasm. To the death of one man most of the clubs owed their failure. Another cause hindered their growth—the want of a sufficiently large class of purchasers for these somewhat peculiar volumes. The book collectors were few in number and by no means wealthy; and a sumptuous edition of a small number of copies cost much money, and the prices to others than members made them a luxury. Even thirty years ago the originals were not valued much above the reprints, and there was not enough judgment shown in the use of manuscript material. Besides, advantage was taken of the limited popularity to be obtained. The speculator came in and created a fictitious demand, leading to ill-considered and even dishonest ventures. Says Mr. Growoll: "The passion for 'club' publications about this time (roughly speaking, from 1863 to 1870) had passed from a dignified mania to very idiocy. No venture was so absurd, no price was so extravagant, that it failed to find shoals of gudgeons eager to swallow the bait."

The clubs of to-day are very different. They appeal to a large number of rich collectors and well-endowed libraries, and the taste for historical or typographically remarkable books, known to be rare from the date of issue, is steadily growing. To compare the modest and quite ordinary issues of the Seventy-six Society with the brilliant achievements of the Grolier Club, gives a better idea of the change that has come over this form of printing activity than could any words. American history has been the favorite subject, and still occupies the attention of the more serious clubs—like the Prince, the Filson, the Gorges, the Parkman, and the Historical Printing Clubs. In other instances not a few extravagances may be found. The Cadmus issued a single copy of a collection of wedding songs, and the Duodecimos prides itself on genuine eighteenth-century paper and an old hand-press.

Mr. Growoll might have supplemented his account of these clubs by pointing out more in detail the rise and decline of the "large-paper" issues, for which these clubs were largely responsible. The printer's art could not endow them with any beauty. The type was generally antique, the paper of the heaviest ribbed quality, and the size of the page was magnificent, with a small square of printing somewhere in the ample surface. The "barn-door" size was the largest folios, very costly to bind, more costly to keep unbound (for dust and handling easily ruined them), and entire monuments of folly, bad taste, and extravagance. It was this that brought some of the clubs to an untimely end, for the size and cost at war prices for paper and printing meant ruin.

The bibliographical work of this volume deserves high praise. It presented great difficulties, but we have detected no slip or omission in the titles. The typography is worthy of the subject, and the volume, of which only 330 copies are printed, is one more evidence of a wholesome increase of interest in American bibliography.

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South Africa of To-day. By Captain Francis Younghusband. Macmillan. 1898.

This book is made up of the letters and telegrams addressed to the London *Times* by Captain Younghusband, while acting as the correspondent of that journal during the recent stirring episode in South Africa. Appearing after Mr. Bryce's 'Impressions of South Africa,' which we recently noticed, such a book as this is at a disadvantage. Hardly any one will care for both books, and of the two Mr. Bryce's has much the more permanent value. It so happens, however, that Captain Younghusband takes up the story of the Transvaal just where Mr. Bryce left it, and his narrative therefore constitutes a sequel to the larger work. This sequel contains the history of Dr. Jameson's raid—an event of sufficient dramatic interest and political significance to command attention. As Captain Younghusband was on the spot at the time of the raid, and is not only a trained observer but also a brilliant writer, what he has to report cannot be neglected by those who wish to follow South African affairs closely.

We do not need to dwell on the circumstances of this remarkable raid, as they are still fresh in the memories of all who read the newspapers. Suffice it to say that Captain Younghusband describes the situation with remarkable fairness. He does justice to the Boers, while stating the case of the Uitlanders in its full strength. Their grievances do not seem to have been outrageous, and their unrest is evidently due chiefly to the knowledge that they are in the majority, while having no voice in the government, together with their conviction that they are the superior and the progressive element in the community. The failure of their attempted *coup d'état* is likely to prevent such attempts in the immediate future, but unless the Boers make some concessions it seems improbable that they can permanently hold so numerous and vigorous an element in subjection. If the peace can be kept for a while, Captain Younghusband gives reasons for believing that concessions will gradually be made.

The reader cannot repress a smile when he turns to Captain Younghusband's account of affairs in Natal. There is an immigration problem there, but it is the English who are in possession, and immigrants from British India who menace their supremacy. If we would understand the feelings of the Boers, we need only look at Captain Younghusband's description of the feelings of the English settlers of Natal. The full statement of the parallel would take us too far afield, and we must limit ourselves to commending it to the attention of students of politics. Here also Captain Younghusband shows himself impartial and open-minded. The control of his English sympathies and prejudices which he displays illustrates the governing capacity of his race. As to his observations on South African matters in general, they accord in the main with those of Mr. Bryce; and, had the latter not covered the ground, Captain Younghusband's book would deserve careful attention. It is at all events so readable that whoever takes it up will be likely to finish it.

The French Revolution. By Justin H. McCarthy. In two volumes. Vol. II. Harper & Bros. 1898.

Seven years have elapsed since the first volume of this work appeared—a delay which might seem to require some explanation from the author. He vouchsafes none, nor does any very satisfactory one suggest itself to us. The French Revolution, it is true, is not an exhausted subject. New materials are being constantly exhumed, new light thrown upon it, and perhaps its proper history remains to be written. But it is not apparent that Mr. McCarthy has made much use of new materials; his work, in fact, might have been produced immediately after that of Carlyle. Nor is it of a character to make its relation to its materials of supreme importance. The public can hardly be expected to accept Mr. McCarthy's impressions as conclusive, or even as presumptive evidence, and he lacks the judicial faculty of "summing up." He gives us the testimony of this witness and of that, not concerning himself much with the question of credibility. This testimony is often contradictory and often plainly false; but that does not particularly disturb him. What he aims at is to produce a dramatic effect, and he has little disposition to omit a telling anecdote because it lacks authenticity.

It is true that Mr. McCarthy occasionally corrects some popular misconceptions. He shows pretty clearly that the Bastille was an innocuous and almost disused old keep, and that the atrocities committed by its destroyers were far worse than those supposed to have been committed on its occupants. He presents an intelligible and consistent view of the character and conduct of Marie Antoinette, and in general it would not be too much to say that his estimates of the prominent actors in the great tragedy are such as have been confirmed by history. We may go so far as to say that, on the whole, readers who depend on Mr. McCarthy for their knowledge of the French Revolution will not be seriously misled. He is not a philosopher, but he is capable of telling a story, and that, after all, is what the French Revolution must be to most people. To be graphic is the main thing in story-telling, and Mr. McCarthy is nothing if not graphic.

As we remarked on the appearance of his first volume, Mr. McCarthy necessarily invites comparison with Carlyle, a fact of which he cannot be unaware. Possibly he thinks that Carlyle's style might be advantageously made smoother, that its shadows might well be lightened. There is no disputing about tastes, and we cannot deny that McCarthy is easier reading than Carlyle, as Tupper is easier reading than Browning. Some people, indeed, cannot stomach Carlyle, and they may fancy this book. But those who can appreciate Carlyle's power will have little disposition to read what will seem to them a feeble imitation of the work of a great master.

Burke's Peerage. Sixtieth edition. London: Harrison & Sons; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1898.

The sixtieth edition of one of the most remarkable monuments ever constructed for the gratification of human vanity represents also a vast amount of curious research, and is a mine of information on the involved subject of social pedigrees, with every facility for ready reference. The "genealogic and heraldic dictionary," as it is called in the preface, has grown into a volume of portentous dimensions (nearly two thousand pages), the greater part of which is printed in exceedingly fine type. This statement will furnish an idea of the quantity of printed matter between the covers. More than 1,600 pages are devoted to the peerage and baronetage; 150 or so to such lesser social fry as knights and privy councillors; and the remainder to a record of the foreign titles of nobility held by British subjects, the holders of various orders, rules of precedence, and other fashionable distinctions.

One feature which is likely to be especially useful to the student of social mysteries is the long alphabetical list, filling seventy-five double-column pages, of the surnames of the nobility and their connections, by blood or matrimony. This is rightly denominated the "key to the work," although some experience is necessary before it can be handled with facility. The array of heirs apparent or presumptive will be scanned with special interest, doubtless, by one class of female readers, and would be doubly fascinating to them if the statement of social were accompanied by one of financial standing. To the cursory reader the most attractive features of the book, probably, will be the coats of arms and the description of the various orders of knighthood. But it is needless to enlarge upon a standard work like this.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bennett, Prof. C. E. Laelius de Amicitia. Boston: Benj. H. Sanborn & Co.
Bibliographie der Deutschen Zeitschriften-Litteratur. Band I.-Leipzig: Fr. Andrä's Nachfolger; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Brandes, George. William Shakespeare: A Critical Study. 2 vols. Macmillan. $8.
Castle, Agnes and Egerton. The Pride of Jennico. Macmillan. $1.50.
Chapman, J. J. Emerson, and Other Essays. Scribners. $1.25.
Clerke, Agnes M., Fowler, A., and Gore, J. E. Astronomy. [Concise Knowledge Library.] Appletons.
Coutts, William. The Works of Horace Rendered into English Prose. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Davenport, H. J., and Emerson, Anna M. The Principles of Grammar. Macmillan. 65c.
Duffy, Sir Charles Gavan. My Life in Two Hemispheres. 2 vols. Macmillan. $8.
Ervieux, L. d'. Les Renaissances de l'Ame. Paris: Chamuel; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Frankland, Mrs. Percy. Pasteur. [Century Science Series.] Macmillan. $1.25.
Harper's Bazar. 1897. Vol. XXX. Harpers.
Harper's Magazine. 1897. Vols. 94 and 95. Harpers.
Harper's Weekly. 1897. Vol. 41. Harpers.
Hoff, J. H. van't. The Arrangement of Atoms in Space. 2d ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Holm, Adolf. The History of Greece. Vols. II., III., and IV. Macmillan. Each $2.50.
Hornung, E. W. Young Blood. Scribners. $1.25.
Knortz, Prof. Karl. Das Deutschthum der Vereinigten Staaten. Hamburg: J. F. Richter.
Lebon, André. Modern France, 1789-1895. London: Unwin; New York: Putnams. $1.50.
Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. LIII. Smith-Stangen. Macmillan. $3.75.
Lefroy, A. H. F. The Law of Legislative Power in Canada. Toronto: Toronto Law Book and Publishing Co.
Leverett, Edith. Rhymes. Boston: Damrell & Upham.
McManus, Blanche. How the Dutch Came to Manhattan. E. R. Herrick & Co. $1.25.
Meyer, Elard Hugo. Deutsche Volkskunde. Strassburg: Trübner; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Mosher, Martha B. Child Culture in the Home. F. H. Revell Co. $1.
Müller, Prof. F. Max. Auld Lang Syne. Scribners. $2.
Murray, J. A. H. A New English Dictionary. Frank-Law—Fyz. G—Gaincoming. (Vol. IV.) Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. $1.25.
Norris, W. E. The Fight for the Crown. Harpers. $1.25.
Pendleton, Louis. Carita: A Cuban Romance. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.25.
Pool, Maria L. The Red-Bridge Neighborhood. Harpers. $1.50.
Progress in Women's Education in the British Empire. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Riley, J. W. Pipes o' Pan at Zekesbury. [Homestead Edition.] Scribners.
Ring, Thomas. In the Toils. F. T. Neely.
Rossetti, D. G. Letters to William Allingham, 1854-1870. Edited by George Birkbeck Hill. F. A. Stokes Co. $4.50.
Rouvre, Charles de. Princesse Esseline. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Sennett, Richard, and Oram, H. J. The Marine Steam Engine. $6.
Sheldon, C. M. In His Steps. Chicago: Advance Publishing Co. 75c.
Smith, T. C. The Liberty and Free Soil Parties in the Northwest. [Harvard Historical Studies.] Longmans, Green & Co.
Wallas, Graham. The Life of Francis Place. 1771-1854. Longmans, Green & Co.
White, Percy. A Passionate Pilgrim. Appletons. $1.

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